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A MINIMUM STANDARD VOCABULARY FOR GERMAN

(*Author's summary.*—The AATG has called for a minimum standard vocabulary and approved the committee's preliminary procedure. The terms defined. A Socratic dialog on the need for the word-list. Its usefulness set forth, and the present and future responsibilities of editors and textbook-makers discussed.)

AT THE Yale meeting of the American Association of Teachers of German a committee consisting, in addition to the present writer, of E. W. Bagster-Collins, A. B. Faust, C. M. Purin, and Walter Wadepuhl, presented a tentative report on a minimum standard vocabulary for the two-year college course in German. The committee had done a deal of work, and had blocked out the general basis on which its labors were predicated, and which it expected to retain in shaping its final report. It asked and received the approval of the membership present on two cardinal points: (1) the desirability of agreeing upon a Minimum Standard Vocabulary; (2) the selection of the Morgan-Kaeding *German Frequency Word Book* as the starting-point for the preparation of such a word-list. Since the vote was a decisive one, about four to one on both points, it may fairly be assumed that the AATG will eventually accept the report of the committee, and recommend the nation-wide adoption of the list in its final shape.

Inasmuch as certain questions will immediately arise in connection with the idea, the constitution, and the utilization of any Minimum Standard Vocabulary that might be adopted for general use, it seems proper and even desirable to discuss some of these points in advance of the anticipated final action of the AATG. It may be helpful to begin with some definitions.

Vocabulary implies a list of detached words, regardless of syntactical connections, and regardless of semantic distinctions. In

most cases, the various meanings of a given word radiate from a common basic conception. Only in a few instances, e.g. *Bank*, *Bein*, *Ton*, *Tor*, have we felt it necessary to list a spelling form twice. Complete detachment, on the other hand, is not an ideal, and in one important respect the peculiar character of the German language enables us to achieve an associative policy with our word-list. I refer, of course, to the fact that German employs a large number of *stems* in combination with each other and with various prefixes and suffixes, making it possible for the student to recognize perhaps a dozen words upon learning a single stem. (For further discussion of this principle of German word-building in its application to standard word-lists, the reader is referred to the prefatory remarks in the *German Frequency Word Book*.)

Standard implies that each word listed is a useful word, and that the aggregate list represents a good working vocabulary. No claim is made or suggested that such a list has the exclusive right to be approved, that it contains all the most useful words, or that it excludes all those of lesser importance. The natural question: Why should we then adopt it? is briefly answered below.

Minimum implies that whatever else the student knows at the end of his second college year, these words can and should be familiar to him. It also implies that certainly all superior students, and probably all the average ones, will know many words not included in the list. It suggests that the makers of the list have purposely kept it within bounds, so that teachers and textbook-makers may not be cramped in their activities by the rigid requirement of the list itself.

Pausing to draw breath, I am at this point aware of a number of questions and objections that may properly be met, or at least considered, before I proceed.

Q. Why legislate in this matter?

A. It seems to be necessary to secure agreement.

Q. Why is agreement desirable?

A. Broadly speaking, there can only be one *optimum* vocabulary for the beginner.

Q. Doesn't he have that now?

A. Wadeputh found that in 20 of the most widely used beginner's books, with a vocabulary spread of some 3500 words, the number of words common to all 20 was exactly 227.

Q. Won't that divergence be corrected by the student's reading?

A. A check of eleven popular reading texts showed 199 words in common.

Q. Won't teachers naturally move towards uniformity on the basis of the *German Frequency Word Book*?

A. A comparison of the word-lists put out recently for German—Purin, Schinnerer-Wendt, Vail—shows wide divergences, and this seems unavoidable, as Vail's experience with teacher-votes has proven.

Q. Why do you claim superiority for your list?

A. We don't.

Q. Why do you think it is a good list?

A. It has back of it the immense range of Kaeding's compilation, plus the very careful pedagogical treatment that list was subjected to under the Modern Foreign Language Study, plus the subsequent scrutiny of five experienced German teachers, all of whom have been studying problems of vocabulary for years.

Q. You seem to speak chiefly of the colleges. Where does the high school come in?

A. The great majority of our high-school courses (unfortunately!) are two-year courses. Our list will be divided roughly into halves, thus providing a list of approximately 1000 words which the high-school pupil should be expected to know by the end of his second year. If he transfers to college, then the college teacher will know just how much vocabulary he can safely assume as already mastered, and can proceed without loss of time to the next vocabulary level.

Q. What good will the adoption of the list do?

A. If the adoption becomes effective, it will direct the attention of students and teachers to a basic vocabulary, permit a nation-wide program of teaching and testing, reduce to a minimum the student's haphazard efforts at vocabulary control, and greatly simplify the problems of the vocabulary-maker and the publisher of language texts.

Q. How are all these benefits to be achieved?

A. Your question calls for a small treatise in reply. Permit me to resume a more formal method of discussion.

It will be clear upon a little reflection that no standard vocabu-

lary will be of much use to anybody unless it is accorded wide recognition and adoption. Reluctance to adopt and use the list, it seems to me, might most logically be felt by those who (1) are engaged in secondary school work, or (2) believe in a predominantly oral approach to any beginning language course. The former group might object to the prominence given in our list to words taken from the world of affairs, a number of which do not appear in the reading matter now most frequently read in American high schools: the second group might miss a good many words which, though relatively infrequent in printed books, bulk large in everyday speech. Replying to these critics or objectors I would make the following points:

1. Cultural readers for the high school in view of the present emphasis upon *Kulturkunde* and *Deutschkunde*, are a logical development for the near future; and these books will have to employ a good many of the very words which the high-school teacher might at present be inclined to question.

2. Our traditional high-school reading has been sharply criticized because, in our desire to have reading matter of moderate difficulty, we have often turned perforce to texts which no German boy of 16 would find interesting. High-school classes in social science, history, civics, economics, and other subjects, have long been handling topics that employ the English equivalents for many of the German words in question. Given suitable reading material there is no reason why high-school pupils should not read about similar topics in German life. We believe that the adoption of such a list as ours will accelerate the preparation of new texts for the high school which should increase pupil interest and benefit.

3. As to the question of oral versus reading vocabulary, we do indeed stand squarely for the *principle* that the chief aim of modern foreign language teaching in the United States is to attain the reading objective. Consequently we believe that a *minimum standard vocabulary* should be so designed as to carry the student toward the attainment of this objective at the maximum rate. However, the list now being prepared for submission to the AATG at its Christmas meeting already contains a considerable number of words of low frequency in print, but useful for oral work in the early stages of language instruction.

4. The word "minimum" should be kept consistently in view in connection with such objections as the above. We believe that our list will allow the teacher or editor such leeway that he can correct it in almost any direction, thus attaining any objective he desires without sacrificing the all-important one of *vocabulary agreement*.

Assuming, then, that the AATG list achieves a nation-wide sanction and utilization, the question may properly be raised, What do we do with it? The answer is not an entirely simple one, for "we" conceals a dual personality, and there is a time-factor which the question ignores altogether. We must therefore distinguish between *teacher* and *editor*, on the one hand, and between *now* and *later* on the other. The teacher's problem is the knottiest one; let us leave him for the moment, and turn to the editor. What can and should the editor do?

The editor's problem, it seems to me, is essentially a future one, and must be worked out step by step. Any new beginners' book prepared after the final adoption of the standard vocabulary will as a matter of course contain all or most of the 1000 words included in the first-year list. Older books will either be revised, as editors find time and occasion, to embrace a larger number of these words, or they will be given an appendix containing the list for the information and assistance of teachers and pupils. Very soon, in my judgment, the Minimum Standard Vocabulary will be worked up into a small dictionary of textbook size, printed by publishers for a nominal sum, and bought by all pupils as soon as they start reading. The vocabulary-maker of the future may then ignore in all reading-texts any word contained in that booklet, concentrating on unusual meanings of particular words, idioms, and new vocables.

Acceptance of the principle of basic and derivative words, as briefly suggested above, will involve a special responsibility on the part of text-book editors, particularly the makers of books for beginners. Taking the example already given, it does not make much difference whether we select *Arbeit*, or *Arbeiter*, or *arbeiten*, as the basic word; but it is highly important that the learner should make the acquaintance of all three in such a time-sequence that they will be associated with each other. Beginners' books should introduce such words in families wherever possible; readers and drill-

books should introduce the principal word-families in their exercises.

Another sort of editor will find the standard vocabulary a great help in eliminating vocabulary error in tests designed to show grammar knowledge, for instance. By keeping within the vocabulary range for the period covered, he can be reasonably sure that if the student gives a faulty answer, it was not vocabulary ignorance that was responsible.

Very different is the teacher's problem at present and in the future. When the new textbooks are available, the question of the standard vocabulary need cause no further disquiet: if the textbooks are well prepared, they will make full provision for all the needs of student and teacher. The editor of the immediate future is the teacher's hope for the years to come. But at present there are wide divergences between any standard word-list and the vocabulary of any text, whether grammar or reader. What shall the teacher do? Are we to go back to a bygone procedure and assign daily lists of words to be memorized and recited? Allow me to suggest a few classroom procedures that may prove helpful in the interim between the adoption of a standard list and its incorporation in teaching materials.

1. By distributing the task over an entire class, it should be possible to establish with relative ease the number of words in a given text that are found in the standard vocabulary, and the number of words in the latter not found in the text. By the use of suitable markings, student's attention could be called particularly to those words that they should by all means try to master. Missing words could be assigned for special drills.

2. In a discussion held last May in Chicago, Miss Elfrieda Ackermann of the Waller High School testified that she had employed the following device successfully with one of her second-year classes. Taking the so-called M.L.T. list for German, she put on the board each day some fifteen words in alphabetic sequence. These words were gone over rapidly in class, each word to be defined and given in a sentence. The pupils liked the exercise, and their vocabulary mastery improved markedly.

3. A weekly drill with flash cards would not only teach many words, but bring home to the student the importance of working with the standard list.

4. Put on the board from time to time, using ten selected words, a scheme like the following:

- | | |
|---------|-----------|
| 1. Tor | 11. door |
| 2. Tür | 12. tower |
| 3. Turm | 13. gate |

Pupils need only match numbers on a slip of paper, thus: 1-13; 2-11; 3-12. Correction of such an exercise can be very rapidly done, and the student's recognition knowledge is quite fairly tested.

5. The old-fashioned "spelling-bee" has not lost its charm for youth: try it on your high-school class for knowledge of the standard vocabulary. The pupil who cannot give the meaning of the German word in (say) ten seconds must sit down.

6. Near the end of the second high-school or first college year, a vocabulary review should be held covering the first 1000 words of the standard list. As acquaintance with many of these words could be assumed without question, perhaps not more than 300 to 400 would need to be included. This could be done orally by the teacher, or in writing on mimeographed sheets containing 50 or 100 words apiece, corrections made in class by fellow-pupils.

7. Regardless of the type of textbook used, teachers everywhere should now proceed to explain and drill the principles of word-formation in German: give the meanings of the commonest prefixes and suffixes, show the relation of the parts of compounds to each other, analyze the compounds that occur and have students form similar ones, etc. Nothing we can do in the classroom will so accelerate the student's reading adaptation as his practical understanding and active mastery of these matters.

Other devices will occur to the resourceful teacher. It must be borne in mind, however, that as soon as a standard vocabulary has been adopted and published, student interest and co-operation will at once be lively and assured, provided teachers make it plain that knowledge of the word-list will not only be expected on examinations, but will be an indispensable foundation for future study and reading.

In conclusion, I wish to express my confidence as to the significance attaching to the labors of the above-named committee. A standard vocabulary for German is imperatively needed, and is

indeed long overdue. The committee has prepared one which meets all reasonable requirements, and it only needs national adoption to begin its real usefulness. That sanction should be heartily given, not so much because the intrinsic merit of the proposed word-list demands it, but because it is essential that we should agree. If we can achieve that, we shall have taken one of the most important forward steps that the teaching of German has witnessed during the present century.

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SONG OF PARTING

In life all things weave such a sorry pattern
 Though roses bloom, the thorns lie hidden there.
 No matter what the poor heart longs and hopes for
 At last the parting hour brings back life's care.
 In thy sweet eyes I once could read a story,
 A song of joy and tender love for me.
 God keep thee, dear, it would have been like heaven,
 God keep thee, dear, it was not meant to be.

Once hate and need and pain were my companions,
 As I, a weary wanderer, storm depressed,
 Dreamt hopelessly of peace and quiet hours
 Till paths led here to thee and sweetest rest.
 In thy soft arms I wanted to recover,
 With my whole life I offer thanks to thee.
 God keep thee, dear, it would have been like heaven,
 God keep thee, dear, it was not meant to be.

Clouds gather fast, the wind sighs through the treetops,
 And gusts of rain rush down on field and wood.
 They speak to me as parting's rightful weather;
 The world is clad for me in somber hood.
 But come what may, my slender forest maiden,
 My life is true to thy sweet memory.
 God keep thee, dear, it would have been like heaven,
 God keep thee, dear, it was not meant to be.

—From the "Trompeter von Säkkingen"
 Translated by Victoria E. Hargrave

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SHORN LAMBS

II

READING FOR COMPREHENSION

BEFORE proceeding to an analysis of the answer papers, I think it wise to say a few words about reading for comprehension and about translation. There will be nothing new in what I have to say, nor can I give anything like the completeness that might be thought necessary; but a few suggestions will enable the reader to understand the criticisms that I shall make of the translations submitted by the candidates for a teacher's license.

Since the publication of the reports of the *Modern Language Study*, a great deal has been written about reading for comprehension. Buswell's monograph on records of eye-movements in reading fails to tell us *how* comprehension was tested (he merely asserts that it was tested). It surely is important, however, that we should be told to what degree it was tested. There is not a single word in any passage whatever that may not be misinterpreted by some student who is sure that he understands it. For example, one of my friends, who knows a good deal of French (and who will probably never forgive me for 'telling' on her) brought me recently a long letter from a French-woman who had come to this country with her two younger sisters, "qui sont actuellement mariées ici." "Actually married," laughed my friend, "I thought you would love that." The joke, however, was on my friend.

In the August, 1933, examination for teachers occurred the sentence: "Mais il fallait avant tout que M. le curé ne fût pas gêné dans ses aumônes." One teacher translated it, "that the priest should not be embarrassed in his alimony." In our passage for translation (March, 1933) there was the sentence: "L'herbe y croît entre les pavés." Several teachers translated it as "the grass believes summer is there between the pavements." There is no dearth of such illustrations. The point is that *before* translation, no one could possibly guess what word would be the *pons asinorum*.

What actually (and *actuellement*) do we mean by reading for comprehension? Consider, for a moment, the author's summary of any article published in the *Modern Language Journal* (or the summaries of books and articles in Coleman's Bibliography). If that kind of comprehension is adequate for understanding the article,

there is no need to read the article. We all know that it is not adequate. Not even the author realizes all the implications of his article; and often, from our point of view, he fails dismally in summing it up. In one of Anatole France's novels (*Le lys rouge*), one of the characters complains bitterly that people do not read what he writes; they read into his writings what they think or what his words suggest to them. Voltaire asserts again and again that we are always talking and writing without understanding each other, so that it is a matter of chance whether 'paradis' means a terrestrial garden or a celestial paradise. We may sum up *King Lear* by a phrase: a tragedy of filial ingratitude. A French pupil might read Hamlet and say that he understood it because he knows that all the main actors in it die a violent death. Yet it is doubtful if the time will ever come when no more books will be written to interpret Hamlet. I feel like saying that comprehension goes not from zero to one hundred, but from one to one million.

When I first came into the State Education Department (1911), I found a pamphlet of directions for rating Regents examination. For the translation into English, the directions to the school examiners were as follows: "Divide the passage into thought-units and rate according to the reproduction of these thought-units in English." This direction proved absolutely impracticable. No matter how many errors the pupils made, the teachers (generally speaking) claimed that their pupils had understood the passage and faithfully reproduced the sense of it. It made no difference, for example, how a character died: the main fact was that he was dead. I was taken to task by one of the professors of education in C— University, because I had insisted that there was a difference in meaning (and in translation) between "Ich habe Kopfweh" and "Mein Kopf tut mir weh." If this professor had ever had a Katzenjammer headache, he would have been ready to distinguish between that pain and the one resulting from a policeman's billet on his scalp. I am inclined to think that one of the reasons for the eminence of some of our great writers is traceable to their early studies in jurisprudence, the first and last rule of which is precision in the use of words.

I know of no better exercise in comprehension (and expression) than that of Carl Schurz. He learned English (and English style) by translating *The Vicar of Wakefield* into German. Then, when his translation was 'cold,' he retranslated it into English. Then he

compared his version with Goldsmith's. Thus he gained that mastery of English which astonished his contemporaries.¹

The advocates of the method of "*explication de textes*" claim that the translation method can not give insight into an author's work; that only an explanation of the text in the foreign language itself can accomplish this purpose. There is much to be said in favor of their claims, especially in fourth-year high-school French and in college courses. The method has the inestimable advantage of giving the student practice in hearing and speaking French; I am not disposed, therefore, to quarrel with either their premises, their arguments or their conclusions. I would, however, make a distinction between translation as a method of teaching and translation as a test of comprehension. If (and when) the method of *explication de textes* has been followed so as to give to the student (in the language of one of its leading advocates in this country) the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth of the author's meaning, purpose, and accomplishment, then it is quite in order to ask the student to translate the French into English (if there are no difficulties of form), as a test of comprehension. One of the best teachers of French (i.e., the language) that I have ever known, the late Professor C. A. Downer, called translation the "acid test" of comprehension. After explaining in French a word, locution, idiom, he would ask a student: "Vous avez compris?" The student's "oui, monsieur" was usually followed by the command to translate it then. The translation usually showed some lack of comprehension of which the student had not been conscious.

The trouble with any and every method of testing for comprehension, except translation, is that we do not know what questions to ask; we do not know where the pupil, thinking he understands, does not understand. Translation alone of all testing methods does show every failure to comprehend.

A point is sometimes made, against translation, that the boundaries of words in any two languages do not coincide. That is, in my opinion, unimportant. Professor H. A. Todd used to tell his students (in Old French and Provençal) that every word could be translated if we knew its force and if the thing it represented ex-

¹In reading a poor translation, e.g., *The Three Musketeers*, we can spot at once the mistranslations, the poor translations, the transverbalizations, the clumsy paraphrase.

isted. Professor O. T. Robert's exercises aim, for one thing, to bring out the exact shade of meaning of many French modifiers and idiomatic locutions. The book, *Les faux amis*, always manages to find an equivalent word or phrase, as close to the original as any two synonyms in English can be to each other. There are two such words in our examination: *plaine*, *prairie*. It would be possible to reproduce their meaning by (*cultivated*) *flat-lands* and *meadows*, rather than by *plains* and *meadows*. But such distinctions of meaning are not so much inherent in these two sets of words, but are rather the result of experience (the French not being acquainted with our type of western plain and prairie). The same is true of one's concept of blue, for instance, whether one has or has not seen the blue of the Mediterranean or Caribbean seas.

Teachers and prospective teachers have very hazy ideas about translation. They will say and write things, and allow pupils to say and write things that they would not tolerate in their own compositions or in a class in English. There seems to be a tacit assumption on the part of the teacher: "I know what you mean; whether you say it or not is unimportant"; and on the part of the pupil; "I think I know what it means; you understand me; whether I say what I mean or not, is unimportant." And on the part of both; "What difference does the English make, since we both know (or think we know) what the French means?" It is that attitude which expresses itself in synonyms and definitions. In our test nearly all candidates defined *village* as 'une petite ville.'

The old grammar-translation method of teaching foreign languages, especially of the teaching of Latin and Greek to the dead and dying generations, had one inestimable advantage: it did teach English (and when continued long enough it also taught Latin and Greek). It taught respect for the meaning of words; it sought for the exact English equivalent and was satisfied with nothing less than the best. In my day, in Cornell, Professors Bristol and Bennett insisted that we read the great translations of the classics. Nowadays, our teachers base their method upon Morrison's law of initial diffuse motions (trial and error; fall-down-pick-yourself-up; play hide and seek). The only trouble with it is that neither teacher nor pupil knows when the trial has been an error. Although the laws of language are just as definite as those of chemistry, to break the one entails no punishment, whereas to

break the other might blow up the building. Teachers will tell you glibly that Latin teaches pupils to think. How can it, unless it teaches precision in the use of words? What shall we say to the chapter heading of one such Latinist: "All pupils should not study Latin?" Teachers should be taught (and should teach their pupils) that a mistranslation is a criminal libel against the author.

Teachers and candidates for a teacher's license often say to me: "Do you want a literal translation? I gave a free translation." That is all they know about translation; they do not seem to know that the one is not English, and the other is not a translation (but at best a paraphrase or a loose résumé in English).

What is a translation?

A translation should do three things: (a) translate the words of the author: just what he wrote, no more, no less; (b) reproduce the exact thought of the author (which is dependent upon the words and expressions used by the author and the demands of the English idiom); (c) reproduce the form (the style, the art) of the original in so far as possible, in an effort to produce the same aesthetic and emotional effects upon the English reader as would be produced by the original French upon a French reader.

For our school purposes, the last condition may be left out of consideration, except in so far as the editor of the text used offers help in the explanatory notes. Our students can not be expected to know that such and such a word or expression is 'low,' 'vulgar,' etc., unless such help is given them. To reproduce the style requires a far greater knowledge of French than they can get in the usual high school and college courses; and presupposes also creative ability in English which they rarely possess. It is this feature of translation that caused Viëtor to say that translation was an art which did not concern the schools. But no art is required to translate the words and the thought of an author of the narrative and descriptive prose that is read in our schools and set for translation in our examinations. It requires merely a knowledge of the meaning of words and idioms, of grammatical forms and syntactical constructions, together with the habitual use of decent English to express one's thought. It is the failure to do these things that gave rise to the Italian proverb: *traduttore, traditore*.

A point against translation, according to one of my friends, is that there is an indefinable 'aura' of connotation that must be felt;

it can not be translated. He cites the line: "O reine de vingt ans" as an example. The best translation he would venture to suggest was: "Oh virgin queen." I am quite ready to agree with his contention, but the argument does not apply to the kind of prose we are discussing. A poem is like a symphony: no word may be changed, just as no note of the symphony may be changed. To appreciate a work of art is quite a different matter from knowing a goodly stock of words and having a thorough knowledge of the grammar of a foreign language. The one is comparable to knowing all of the higher mathematics; and the latter to familiarity with the four fundamental operations in arithmetic.

There are even ethnic-linguistic differences that make some translations an almost impossible task. That is why those whose native language is English would prefer a translation of the Bible or of Shakespeare in German to one in French. It is probably true that an American with a thorough knowledge of German could read more rapidly and with greater understanding of the meaning of the text a play of Shakespeare in the Tieck-Schlegel translation than he could in English (without consulting the notes), simply because the familiar words in English, with unfamiliar meanings, lead him astray; but not even this translation could ever replace for him the lyric passages in Shakespeare. And one who has learned to love to read the sonorous prose-poem of Job in the King James version, would never be satisfied with any translation.

There is one more point. Even if the translation deals only with prose (like the recent prize translation of one of Konrad Ferdinand Meyer's books), it must meet and solve problems not merely of sentence structure and the denotation and connotation of words, but also of their etymological origin and development. This particular translation was criticized (whether justly or not I do not presume to say) for a preponderance of words of Latin origin, thus giving a false impression (it was claimed) of the blunt soldierly speech of the chief character.

Such things are matters for the scholar and the specialist and do not concern our investigation. We are concerned merely with the comprehension of the author's meaning and its expression in decent English. There was probably not one of our candidates for a teacher's license who had not read or heard of the Hotel de Rambouillet. Did they think, I wonder, that the amiable Marquise de Ram-

bouillet lived in some Ritz-Carlton of her day? Every last one of them translated 'hotel' in our passage as hotel, although the context shows that it means a mansion. They had also doubtless seen 'place' and 'college' hundreds of times: yet they always translate these words as place and college.

These three words were always mistranslated. Provence was usually mistranslated as province. I stopped counting them after a time, merely noting the fact of their universality. The other words, expressions, constructions, will be taken in their order in the text and given, where possible, a percentage of occurrence.

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DISCOVERING APTITUDE FOR THE MODERN LANGUAGES

(*Author's summary.*—This study describes the use of the Symonds Foreign Language Prognostic Test for purposes of prediction and placement in the modern foreign languages. Prognostic test scores correlate $.64 \pm .046$ with first semester grades and they can be used to advantage in selecting good "risks" for modern foreign language study.)

IF ONE is really concerned with an attempt to adapt the instructional content of the secondary school curriculum to the various aptitudes, interests, and abilities of the secondary school population, an effort must be made sooner or later to discover those students whose aptitudes, interests, and abilities are such as to assure probable success in that broad field of learning known as the Modern Foreign Languages. School administrators are well aware of the wide range of ability represented in any secondary school grade and are reasonably certain in their own minds that a modern language should not be made a compulsory part of every child's program of studies. A modern language is usually an elective subject. The real problem is to discover for whom it should be an elective, or to put it differently, who are the students who had better replace a modern foreign language with some other elective? An attempt has been made at the Deerfield-Shields Township High School to answer this question on the basis of mental and language prognostic test scores.

In September, 1931, the Symonds Foreign Language Prognosis Test, Form B, was administered to all students beginning a modern foreign language. At the end of the first semester, a study of prognostic test results and final semester grades showed a substantial relationship. As a result of this experiment, it was decided that the following year all students who wished to enter a modern foreign language would be required to take the prognostic test. Accordingly, in May, 1932, Forms A and B of the Symonds Foreign Language Prognosis Test were administered to 242 Freshman students who declared their intention of registering for a modern language at the beginning of the fall school term. Of these 242 Freshman students 120 had had no previous foreign language experience, 17 had less than a year, and 105 had a year or more of previous language experience in Latin. The 17 with less than a year's ex-

perience with a foreign language had tried Latin and had been unsuccessful. The distribution of scores for these 242 students is shown in Table I.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES, SYMONDS FOREIGN LANGUAGE
PROGNOSTIC TEST, FORMS A AND B
May 12, 1932

| Score | Previous foreign language study | | |
|-------|---------------------------------|---------------------|--------|
| | Less* than 1 yr. | One year or more | Total |
| 270 | | 1 | 1 |
| 255 | | 5 | 5 |
| 240 | 3 | 12 | 15 |
| 225 | 2 | 10 | 12 |
| 210 | 3 | 22 | 25 |
| 195 | 1 | 13 | 14 |
| 180 | 3 | 13 | 16 |
| 165 | 11 | 15 | 26 |
| 150 | 16 | 7 | 23 |
| 135 | 17 | 5 | 22 |
| 120 | 30 | 1 | 31 |
| 105 | 18 | 1 | 19 |
| 90 | 19 | | 19 |
| 75 | 6 | | 6 |
| 60 | 8 | | 8 |
| Total | 137 | 105 | 242 |
| Mean | 132.86 | 203.64 | 163.57 |
| S.D. | 38.64 | 34.37 | 50.48 |

Difference between the means 70.78

σ_{mean} 3.301 3.354

$\sigma_{\text{difference}}$ 4.705

$\frac{\text{Difference}}{\sigma_{\text{difference}}} = 15.04$

$\sigma_{\text{difference}}$

* 120 had no previous language experience.

It is apparent from Table I that those students with a year or more of previous successful experience in foreign language earn, on the average, significantly higher prognostic test scores than do those students with less than a year's or no experience in foreign

language. The means of the two groups differ significantly. Abilities acquired through previous foreign language experience are revealed by higher prognostic test scores. High prognostic test scores are associated with aptitude or ability necessary for successful achievement in a foreign language. No one with successful previous foreign language experience had a score on the prognostic test below 105. It would seem that for reasonable assurance of success in the study of a foreign language as a member of this group that one might well have a score of approximately 105 on the prognostic test. Further data in support of this assumption will appear later.

A practical deduction from the data of Table I is that if the students with no previous language experience are put into class groups with those of a year or more of previous foreign language experience, they will be at a decided disadvantage as concerns their present language aptitudes and abilities. The extent of this disadvantage or handicap can be readily appreciated from an examination of the final semester grades of these two groups presented in Table II.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF SEMESTER GRADES, MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE,
FIRST SEMESTER, 1933

| No Previous Language Training | | E | D | C | B | A | Total |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| | No. % | 12 16 | 28 37 | 23 31 | 9 12 | 3 4 | 75 100 |
| 1 year or more of Language Training | | | | | | | |
| | No. % | 5 6 | 5 6 | 37 43 | 26 30 | 13 15 | 86 100 |
| Total | | | | | | | |
| | No. % | 17 11 | 33 20 | 60 37 | 35 22 | 16 10 | 161 100 |

The percentage of A grades given to the group with a year or more of previous language experience is nearly four times the percentage given to the group without previous language experience. The percentage of B grades is better than 2 to 1 in favor of the group with previous language experience. The percentage of E grades in the group without previous language experience is two

and a half times that of the group with language experience, and the percentage of D's is six times as great.

This discrepancy in grading could be met to a considerable degree by sectioning these two general classes of ability into different instructional groups. If this is impossible from an administrative standpoint, groupings should be arranged within class groups and the final grades of the two types of students should be determined separately. At present, this relatively high proportion of low grades in the group without previous language experience operates to reduce the predictive significance of the aptitude test.

The scores of the 137 students who had had no previous foreign language experience were converted into percentile ranks. The percentile ranks are shown in Table III.

TABLE III

PERCENTILE RANKS, SYMONDS FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGNOSTIC TEST, FORMS A AND B, 137 BEGINNING LANGUAGE STUDENTS*
May 12, 1932

| P.R. | 99 | 95 | 90 | 80 | 75 | 70 | 60 | 50 | 40 | 30 | 25 | 20 | 10 | 5 | 1 |
|-------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|
| Score | 250 | 214 | 181 | 160 | 154 | 148 | 138 | 129 | 123 | 113 | 109 | 104 | 88 | 78 | 64 |

* 120 had no previous language experience.

It should be noted that a percentile rank of 20 is the equivalent of a score of 104. If, as has been suggested, a score of approximately 105 seems necessary for assurance of probable success in a modern foreign language, it will mean that the lowest 20 per cent of those declaring intention of electing a language have little chance of succeeding with it.

For purposes of guidance in registering those who had thus declared their intention of electing a foreign language and who had taken the prognostic test, and for purposes of predicting success in the subject, it was decided that results of a test of general mental ability might well be combined with the prognostic test results. Mental test results were available for 126 of the 137. Percentile ranks were computed for mental test scores, and for I.Q.'s. The average of the mental test P.R., the I.Q. P.R. and the prognostic test P.R. was then taken as a placement rank. This scheme of determining the probable "placement" gave equal weight to men-

tal maturity, brightness or learning rate as indicated by the I.Q., and aptitude as measured by the prognostic test.

Placement ranks for the 126 students, recommendations for registration, numbers actually enrolled, final semester grades, and per cents of grades below C and C or better are summarized in Table IV.

The approximate chances given in the recommendations for registration were obtained from the trial experiment of a year ago. That they were not too severe may be determined from the percentages in the last two columns. Of course, the numbers in this table are small, and hence not highly reliable, but the trend is decided and prediction was substantially correct. It appears that a placement rank of 20 can be with safety regarded as the critical score. If the prognostic P.R., both mental test P.R.'s., and achievement in related subjects is generally low, it can be recommended with a good deal of assurance that an attempt to learn a modern language will meet with little success. One must have, it seems, a placement rank of 30 at least in order to have one chance out of five of receiving a C, or college recommending grade. A placement rank of better than 40 is necessary in order that the chances for a C grade or better are even.

It might be pointed out that had all 55 with placement ranks below forty taken a modern language, 40-50 of them would very likely have had D or E for a semester grade. All would have had to repeat the course to earn a college recommending grade. As it now is, at the most, out of this group 17 may repeat. The prognostic data has saved the instructional expense of approximately 28 repeaters, assuming that most students who elect a modern language do so for a college accredited subject. Until a course in modern language is adapted to the abilities of these less able pupils it is reasonably doubtful whether they are spending valuable time and money to the best advantage when they insist upon registering in the present courses geared to present college preparatory standards.

The fact that 15 with rankings above 40 did not enroll should not be overlooked. At least half of these would probably have done the work credibly.

A statistical study of the prognostic ratings in relation to final grades supports the empirical findings thus far described. Table

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF PROGNOSTIC, PLACEMENT, AND ACHIEVEMENT DATA
 BEGINNING MODERN LANGUAGE STUDENTS
 First Semester, 1933

| Place- ment rank | Freq. | No. | % | Placement recommendation and prognosis | No. En- rolled in Mod. Lang. | Final sem. grades | Per- cent getting D or E | Per- cent getting C or better |
|--|--|-----|-----|--|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| 95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60 55 50 45 40 | 2 3 5 4 6 9 11 11 7 7 3 3 | 71 | 56% | Prognosis good. Chances about even for a grade of C or better. | 56 | A- 3 B- 9 C-21 D-16 E- 7 | 41% | 59% |
| 35 30 | 14 9 | 23 | 18% | Below average group. Successful work will require good study habits and strenuous application. About 1 chance out of 4 for a grade of C or better. | 12 | C- 2 D- 6 E- 4 | 83% | 17% |
| 25 20 | 14 4 | 18 | 14% | Doubtful — probably should not take Mod. Lang. Chances of a grade of C or better about 1 out of 6. | 5 | D- 5 | 100% | |
| 15 10 5 0 | 7 4 2 1 | 14 | 11% | Recommend that they take some other sub- ject in place of Mod. Lang. | 2 | D- 1 E- 1 | 100% | |
| | 126 | 126 | 99% | | 75 | | | |

V shows the distribution and per cents of final semester grades at the various levels of placement ranks.

TABLE V
RELATION BETWEEN PLACEMENT RANK AND FINAL SEMESTER
GRADES IN MODERN LANGUAGES
First Semester, 1933

| Number and percent of final semester grades | | | | | | | Percent at each placement level of | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|------------|------------------------------------|-----------|--|
| | E | D | C | B | A | | E & D | C & above | |
| 90-99 | | 1 17% | 3 50% | 1 17% | 1 17% | 6 | 17% | 83% | 33% with placement ranks of 50 and above get E or D. |
| 80-89 | | 1 11% | 3 33% | 4 44% | 1 11% | 9 | 11% | 89% | |
| 70-79 | 2 25% | 1 13% | 2 25% | 2 25% | 1 13% | 8 | 38% | 62% | |
| 60-69 | | 6 43% | 8 57% | | | 14 | 43% | 57% | |
| 50-59 | 1 8% | 4 33% | 5 42% | 2 17% | | 12 | 42% | 58% | |
| 40-49 | 4 57% | 3 43% | | | | 7 | 100% | 0% | 92% with placement ranks below 50 get E or D. |
| 30-39 | 4 33% | 6 50% | 2 17% | | | 12 | 83% | 17% | |
| 20-29 | | 5 100% | | | | 5 | 100% | 0% | |
| 10-19 | 1 50% | 1 50% | | | | 2 | 100% | 0% | |
| 0-9 | | | | | | | | | |
| Total % | 12 16% | 28 37% | 23 31% | 9 12% | 3 4% | 75 100% | | | |

$$r = .572 \pm .052$$

The last two columns of this table show the percentage of D and E grades at each placement rank level, and the percentage of C grades or better at each level. Only two with placement rankings below 20 finally elected to try a modern language. The 5 whose placement rankings were between 20-30 earned D grades. The relatively large number of D grades in the middle placement range is in part due to the handicap already mentioned and to some extent, no doubt, to a tendency on the part of teachers to award mediocre achievement and conscientious effort with a passing grade, but not a college recommending grade.

With the present standards of grading, one has little chance of earning a grade of C if his placement rank is below 50. In view of the high percentages of D and E grades accompanying placement ranks between 20 and 50, it is not likely that those with rankings below 20 who were advised to elect a subject other than a modern language were greatly misled or ill advised.

The relationship between placement ranks and final semester grades as shown in Table II yields a Pearson coefficient of correlation of $.572 \pm .052$.

A similar study was made of the relationship between the prognostic test percentile ranks and final semester grades. While this relationship gave a coefficient of correlation of $.640 \pm .046$, the low P.R.'s on the prognostic test alone did not uniformly select out the bulk of E and D grades. A careful study of this and the other relationships between mental test score P.R.'s and final grades, I.Q. P.R.'s and final grades, and mental test score P.R.'s and prognostic test P.R.'s seems to indicate that high prognostic test scores are more closely associated with high grades than are either mental test score P.R.'s or I.Q. P.R.'s and that high prognostic test P.R.'s are usually associated with high mental test P.R.'s. Low mental test score P.R.'s and prognostic test P.R.'s are about equally closely associated with low grades, and low mental test P.R.'s and low prognostic P.R.'s go together. Consequently, students with high prognostic scores may well try a modern language, especially if their mental test ratings are high. Students with low prognostic scores, low mental ratings, and poor achievement grades in related subjects may well be advised to elect a subject other than a modern language. The success of students whose mental ratings are high but whose prognostic rating is low or vice

versa is somewhat less certain and in such cases additional data on successful achievement in other school subjects may well be considered before a decision is made upon a modern language as an elective.

TABLE VI
SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SEVERAL FACTORS AND MODERN
LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT, 75 BEGINNING LANGUAGE STUDENTS
First Semester, 1933

Simple correlations:

| | |
|--|--------------|
| Placement Ranks and First Semester Grades..... | .572 ± .052 |
| Prognostic Test P.R.s and First Semester Grades..... | .640 ± .0460 |
| Mental Test Score P.R.s and First Semester Grades..... | .381 ± .066 |
| Intelligence Quotient P.R.s and First Semester Grades..... | .393 ± .066 |
| Mental Test Score P.R.s and Prognostic Test P.R.s..... | .455 ± .062 |

Partial and multiple correlations:

Variables: 0. Grade Points*—First Semester Grades.

1. Mental Test P.R.s.

2. Prognostic Test P.R.s.

| <i>First Order r</i> | <i>Sigmas</i> | <i>Means</i> |
|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| $r_{01} = +.381 \pm .066$ | $\sigma_0 = 1.03$ | $M_0 = 2.51$ |
| $r_{02} = +.640 \pm .046$ | $\sigma_1 = 24.68$ | $M_1 = 59.93$ |
| $r_{12} = +.455 \pm .062$ | $\sigma_2 = 26.29$ | $M_2 = 58.33$ |

Partials: $r_{01.2} = +.131$

$r_{02.1} = +.567$

$(r_{12.0} = +.297)$

Multiple $R_{0(12)} = +.648$

Regression Equation $X_0 = .0047 X_1 + .0230 X_2 + .8968$

* Grade points were as follows: A—5; B—4; C—3; D—2; E—1.

A summary of the relationships of the several factors and language achievement as measured by semester grades is presented in Table VI. The best single predictive factor is the prognostic test P.R. The multiple R between grades and the two variables, prognostic P.R.'s and mental test score P.R.'s, shows that the mental P.R.'s add nothing to the predictive significance of the prognostic test. While this may be true for the group, it does not follow that the mental test data should be disregarded entirely in advising individuals concerning probable success in a modern language. As already suggested, a low prognostic test score and high mental rat-

ings may point to the need for further data, as would a high prognostic score and low mental ratings. It should not be forgotten that factors other than lack of aptitude or ability may account for low scores on tests. Only when test scores and previous records are consistently low is it safe to conclude that aptitude or ability is lacking. Erratic test performance indicates a *problem* not a failure.

A few words should be said concerning the two partial correlation coefficients that enter into the regression equation. When first semester grades are correlated with mental test P.R.'s, and prognostic test P.R.'s are held constant, the resulting partial correlation is $+ .13$ instead of $+ .38$ when the prognostic P.R.'s are a variable factor. This means that if all of these seventy-five beginning modern language students had had the same score on the prognostic test, the correlation between mental test P.R.'s and semester grades would have been $+ .13$. In other words, if the abilities measured by the aptitude test had been the same for each student, the correlation between language achievement and mental ability would have been much lower than is the case when the prognostic test scores vary. The second partial coefficient of $+ .56$ shows the correlation between prognostic test P.R.'s and semester grades when mental test P.R.'s are held constant. This means that had all the students in this group been equal in general mental ability, as measured by the mental test, the resulting correlation between prognostic test P.R.'s and language achievement would have been $+ .56$ instead of $+ .64$. This indicates that the general mental test factor does contribute something, but that the greater part of the correlation is due to factors measured by the prognostic test itself. It would seem, therefore, that modern foreign language achievement is the result of special abilities which are measured only in part by a general test of mental ability, and that aptitude for the modern languages can be better measured with special tests designed for that purpose.

The implications of this study may be summarized as follows:

1. Students who elect a modern language after a year or more of successful experience with a foreign language (Latin) have a decided advantage over the student entering a modern language course without previous experience with a foreign language. These two groups should be segregated for purposes of instruction. The inexperienced group should be graded on less exacting standards.

2. The Symonds Foreign Language Prognostic Test, Forms A and B, can be used to advantage in selecting students who in all probability will find a modern language a difficult and unprofitable subject, and one little adapted to their aptitudes, interests, and abilities.

3. The P.R.'s on the Symonds Foreign Language Prognostic Test proved to be of greater predictive significance than did either the mental test score P.R.'s or I.Q. P.R.'s from the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. The use of mental test ratings adds little or nothing to the general predictive value of the prognostic test, but such data together with achievement and ability ratings in related subjects may be of considerable importance in corroborating or rejecting prognostic test data in individual cases.

4. The selection of students for modern language courses on group mental test data alone is not advisable. Success in a modern foreign language seems to be the result, to a considerable degree at least, of special abilities or aptitudes not measured by a general mental test.

5. It is not advisable to become too dogmatic in selecting students for modern languages on the basis of test results. If parents and child insist upon a trial even though the probabilities of successful work are highly uncertain, a trial should be allowed, but in such cases the determinism of both parent and child should be tempered with sober advice on the probable outcome.

6. The possibilities for courses in the modern languages for the less apt students should be explored and if possible developed. Such courses might well offer the retarded secondary school student a vital language opportunity and cultural appreciations not likely to be gained elsewhere.

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FRENCH IN RHODE ISLAND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

(*Author's summary.*—Modern language instruction in the junior high schools of at least one State is considerably like clothes handed down from an older brother to a younger, regardless of the fit. Perhaps Junior would get along better in a suit of his own.)

THE junior high school in Rhode Island is, generally speaking, comparatively new. In Providence, for example, the last three junior high schools were opened since January, 1931, and one of these in January, 1932. During and for some time after the transition period it was to be expected that instructional problems should receive less attention than organizational and administrative problems. This observation applies with unusual emphasis to the teaching of modern languages, which have, all in the space of a few years, been tolerated, discarded, reinstated, and sometimes favored, at places within a State so small and compact that its educational problems are hardly as extensive as those of Chicago.

It is the purpose of this study to examine the teaching of foreign languages in the junior high schools of Rhode Island, with a view to discovering whether there is any considerable uniformity in this small area, whether the courses are especially adapted to the junior high schools or are merely handed over without change from the senior high schools, and to arrive at some constructive suggestions. Since the only foreign language given in all the schools considered (except one) is French, this is taken as the basis for investigation, with the assumption that the situation for Italian, and possibly in some measure for Latin, is comparable.

In October, 1932, the writer sent a questionnaire to each of the twenty junior high schools of Rhode Island and received nineteen replies. The one school that did not reply is probably the smallest in the State, and statistically of little importance. One other small school replied that it does not offer French, and so it is disregarded.

The questionnaire did not concern three important matters: the size of classes, the number of other subjects taught by the foreign language teachers, and the preparation of these teachers. Just at this time of forced economy such items might not be fairly representative of a normal trend, and it may be reasonably taken for granted that there is need for improvement in all three.

The first question was: How many terms do pupils take French? The answers are as follows:

| <i>Number of terms</i> | <i>Number of schools</i> |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1-9..... | 1 |
| 2..... | 2 |
| 3..... | 11 |
| 3½..... | 1 |
| 4..... | 3 |

The second question, asking the number of times per week, brought this information:

| <i>Times</i> | <i>Number of schools</i> |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 1, 2, 3 or 4..... | 1 |
| 4 or 5..... | 2 |
| 5..... | 4 |
| 3 and 5..... | 3 |
| 4..... | 8 |

Combining the last two as being practically equivalent, we find that eleven schools average four times per week, and three others have four in at least part of the course. The typical Rhode Island junior high school offers French four times per week for a year and a half, thus presumably aiming to cover the amount given in a senior high school five times per week for one year.

This work is given, according to question three, in the eighth and ninth grades in thirteen schools, in the ninth only in four, and in all grades in one school.

The fourth question read: What other foreign languages are offered? The answers are:

None—in one school
 Italian and Latin—in two schools
 Latin—in thirteen schools
 Italian—in two schools

In response to the next question: Do you offer a general language course? there were four affirmative and fourteen negative answers. Evidently general language courses are just as unpopular as other modern languages.

Question six asked: What textbooks do you use for French?

By a peculiar coincidence, eighteen different books were mentioned in the eighteen schools. The distribution by schools is:

| <i>Name of text</i> | <i>Number of schools</i> |
|--|--------------------------|
| Greenberg's <i>First French Book for Junior High Schools</i> | 7 |
| Perley's <i>Que fait Gaston?</i> | 7 |
| Guerber's <i>Contes et Légendes</i> | 5 |
| Aldrich and Foster's <i>French Reader</i> | 4 |
| *Roux's <i>First French Course</i> | 3 |
| Aldrich, Foster, and Roulé's <i>Elementary French</i> | 3 |
| Greenberg's <i>French Stories for Beginners</i> | 2 |
| The New Chardenal..... | 2 |
| Scattering..... | 10 |
| Total frequency of mention..... | <u>43</u> |

Of these eighteen, seven are distinctly senior high school texts, three are distinctly for junior high schools, and eight might be in either classification. As to frequency of mention, out of forty-three times, eleven are to be rated as senior high school books, sixteen as junior high, and sixteen as either. Too many of the French textbooks are senior high books put on the junior level and the courses probably follow the books closely. There seems to be real need of revision here.

The seventh question concerned the ground covered in each book, but the statements are made in so many different ways that they are hardly susceptible of tabulation. The only useful deduction seems to be that about fifty pages of reading material are read, and that the schools using the Greenberg's *First French Book* cover the whole book. It seems to the writer that there is justification for the complaint, frequently heard from senior high school teachers, that pupils come to them inadequately prepared to read and understand second-year texts.

Question eight read: Do you use a grammar and a reader together? Counting the few schools that have a combination book affirmatively, we find twelve answering *yes* and six answering *no*.

Related to this question is the next: If so, do you use both every

* One of these schools says it intends to drop this book.

day, or do you alternate them? Five schools use both every day, nine alternate, and four did not answer. It would seem to the writer that there is likely to be created in pupils' minds a false impression that reading and grammar are things to be kept separate, rather than interrelated and mutually helpful views of a living language.

The last question was: What, if any, changes in course or textbooks would be desirable? All but six of the eighteen schools are satisfied with present arrangements. One of the six wants "more varied reading matter," and another wants "better grammars." (This school is now using the grammar which leads in frequency of mention in question six).

So much for the facts revealed by the questionnaire.

In considering a constructive program it seems well to note three criteria. (1) In keeping with one important principle of junior high schools, the work in foreign language must be exploratory; it must help to determine whether any given pupil has the inclination or the ability to pursue this language—or any other—in the senior high school (2) Whether he continues or drops it, the year's work should be worth while in itself, and not merely a preparation for something else. (3) It should give him thorough and adequate preparation for a second year in the senior high school, thus silencing the all too common complaint of senior high school teachers. To meet these three requirements is not easy—and not impossible.

In the first place, it is the writer's firm conviction that a four-fold objective should always be stressed: to read, to speak, to write, and to understand. No one of these should be allowed to exclude or dominate the others if the language is to be worth while in itself or even if it be thought of simply as a foundation for further work. To aim at any one of these alone would be to overlook the natural interest of a live boy or girl, and would make the attainment of even the narrow aim more difficult and unsatisfactory because it would be isolated from the helpful influences of the other phases. All these processes should go on together every day. Never should a grammar lesson be given without some reading (and translation!) to go with it. The grammar should be thought of as an explanation of the material read and as a foundation for speaking and writing. A pupil should never be allowed to say: "I know what the right form is but I cannot pronounce it." He should be

told that he does not know it if he cannot pronounce it. And as he learns to speak he should simultaneously learn to write what he speaks.

At the junior high school age the vocal organs can be much better trained to a correct accent than they can be when the pupil is a few years older. Therefore a good pronunciation is easier and more practical than it will ever be again.

While the writer does not agree with those who believe in a great amount of reading, it does seem advisable to have much more done than fifty pages per year. What is covered should give a good recognition vocabulary. Such grammar as is learned should be learned thoroughly, so that it will not have to be relearned.

The reading material should be interesting from the first. A junior high school pupil can hardly be expected to grow enthusiastic over being invited to be a second Adam and give a name to every living creature. Neither will he care much about: "Here is a ruler. There is a pen. The pen is on the desk." His first impression of the language must be that it says something interesting, something that makes him want to go on and "see how it comes out." From the first day he should read a story; and the stories should be varied in both form and vocabulary, adapted to junior high school minds. Books that use only the present tense are lacking in one important requisite—they do not give pupils practice in recognizing various verb-forms, and they fail to give a proper foundation for future work. Such stories as *Contes et Légendes*, or Aldrich and Foster's *French Reader*, or Méras's *Le Premier Livre* are examples of appropriate reading texts.

As for grammar work, angels may well fear to tread here. The work should be thoroughly done, as far as it goes, but should be always thought of as not an end in itself. Perhaps it is reasonable to expect it to cover articles; partitive constructions; negative and interrogative forms; plural of nouns; forms, position, and comparison of adjectives; at least the present, imperfect, future, past definite, and past indefinite of regular verbs and of a few irregular ones; conjunctive and disjunctive pronouns.

The methods used should vary. It would seem extreme and foolish to use any one method to the exclusion of others. Certainly pupils should be accustomed to using and hearing French in the class every day; but, in the writer's opinion, it is an extravagant

waste of time to exclude English in explaining the meaning of words or of grammatical principles. It is much better to make things clear with a few simple statements in English, and to use the time thus saved for teaching more French.

If such a course can be given for a year and a half, four times a week, it ought to show pupils whether they would do well to go on with it a second year, and at the same time it ought to be worth while for its educative value in itself. Such a foundation should be laid that in the senior high school there would be no need for preliminary work on pronunciation or reading habits. It ought to be possible to go on with second year reading texts profitably; grammar should be taken up, touching lightly on the things already learned and going on with more intensive and rapid work than is frequently possible now. By the end of this second year a class ought to be as far advanced as is now the case when the two years are done in the senior high school.

In brief, the junior high school ought to make the most of its opportunity to give a better oral and aural foundation, and thus leave the senior high school free to do more in the line of formal grammar, reading, and composition. Between the two schools there is no need to fall to the ground if we distribute the work right.

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THE AMOUNT AND COMPOSITION OF A MINIMUM ESSENTIAL FRENCH READING VOCABULARY

(*Author's summary.*—This article discusses the establishment of a minimum vocabulary based on actual experimentation, which will enable a two-year student to read with comprehension written French of average difficulty.)

“**W**ITH how many different French words should a student be familiar, in order to read with comprehension an ungraded French text of average difficulty?” “What words should be included in such a student’s vocabulary?”

In simple language, these two questions clearly state the principal phase of the vocabulary problem which faces most modern foreign language teachers, textbook writers, editors, and publishers today. My purpose here is to present some data that may serve in answering these important questions.

It should be understood that in using “word recognition” as an index of reading comprehension, I am assuming on the part of the student a basic knowledge of syntactical relationships (not formal grammar), a familiarity with the more common inflected forms of the words making up this selected vocabulary and a maturity and background that would insure comprehension of the subject matter if read in the mother tongue.

Furthermore, I should like to call attention to the fact that any consideration of vocabulary in an inclusive sense, which does not take into account the idiomatic expressions occurring in the texts examined, is defective. However, in considering these two problems, I have necessarily limited my definition of the term “vocabulary” to mean individual written words in the dictionary sense, because the present study is based upon Vander Beke’s *French Word Book*,¹ in which the term “word” is similarly defined in practice.

To return to our two questions as to the amount and composition of a minimum essential French reading vocabulary, it is quite obvious that if these two questions were put to most language teachers or investigators, the reply would necessarily be based upon subjective opinion formed on long teaching experience or on in-

¹ G. E. Vander Beke, *A French Word Book*, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, (The Macmillan Co., 1927), vol. xv. Hereinafter, when *French Word Book* is mentioned, this publication is referred to.

spired arm-chair guessing. And yet, this vocabulary problem is not a fad. It has occupied an important place in practically every discussion of language down to the present day. From the report of the Committee of Twelve in 1898, there has been an increasingly large number of investigations which reveal a deplorable lack of uniformity in the vocabularies of different grammars and readers used in our beginners' classes, frequently in the same course.² Students are introduced to scores of words which they will probably never see again and which are quickly forgotten while struggling with the new vocabulary of the next text put before them. This lack of uniformity in vocabulary building is a matter of common knowledge and is universally deplored. Yet, besides the study on which this article is based,³ I know of but one other systematic attempt to answer the vital questions formulated at the beginning of the article.⁴

Briefly, my procedure was as follows: First of all, I adopted as my basis the Vander Beke *French Word Book*, which represents the most successful large-scale attempt to ascertain the most widely used words in written French and to arrange them in the order of their relative usefulness. Then, on the basis of completeness of text and suitability from the standpoint of average difficulty, interest, and availability for class use, I selected five ungraded reading texts for examination, *Les Oberlê*, by René Bazin, *La Mare au Diable*, by George Sand, *Mon Cher Tommy*, a comparatively recent book by Marcel Prévost, *Le Tour du Monde*, by Jules Verne, and *Choix de Contes*, by Alphonse Daudet. A somewhat similar study had been done in English on a sampling basis of every twentieth

² Margaret Blackburn, "An Analysis of the Vocabularies of Two Recent French Grammars," *Mod. Lang. Journal*, xiv (1930). Mary E. Murray, "A Comparison of Vocabularies in French," *Mod. Lang. Forum*, xi, 1. Edith K. Sears, "The Vocabularies of Two Direct Method French Grammars for Beginners," *Mod. Lang. Journal*, xv (May, 1931). Ben D. Wood, "A Comparative Study of the Vocabularies of Sixteen French Textbooks," *Mod. Lang. Journal*, xi (February, 1927). A further bibliography can be had by referring to the study on which this article is based, shown in Note 3.

³ J. Douglas Haygood, *A Minimum Essential French Reading Vocabulary*, an unpublished Master's dissertation, University of Chicago, June, 1932.

⁴ Margaret Alice Emery, *The Composition and Amount of a Minimum Vocabulary for Reading Ungraded French Texts*, an unpublished Master's dissertation, University of Chicago, August, 1931.

page.⁵ To insure a representative sampling, I examined every eighth page of each book. The problem was to find out what vocabulary items provided the "running" words found on each page of the sample, and to ascertain, by a comparison with *French Word Book*, what groups in the latter compilation furnished these items. All the "running" words on every sampled page were entered on individual cards, alphabetically arranged, one card for each different word, with the number of times it appeared on each sampled page of each book. After the count was completed, these figures were tabulated and yielded Table I. In this way, I tabulated the words on eighty pages, containing approximately 21,881 "running" words, and 3130 "different" words; thus, over one-eighth of the total running words in the texts examined were studied in this way. It is, of course, obvious that very common items like articles, certain conjunctions, prepositions, and pronouns, and a few verbs, adjectives and nouns, provide more "running" words than others of less frequent use, but the extent to which this takes place may cause surprise to those who have not given definite attention to the matter of vocabulary from a strictly utilitarian point of view. Let us now look at our table.

The entire Vander Beke word list was divided into groups of five hundred items each, which we see listed vertically in the first column to the left. The first group represents the most frequently used 69 items in modern written French, taken over from a previous word count. The next division represents Group 1, items 1 to 500, inclusive, in *French Word Book*. Next comes Group 2, and so on, through Group 12, items 5501-6067. Just under this, we see a group which represents all words found in the five books examined which are not listed at all by Vander Beke. It will also be noted that, in order to give a more comprehensive view of the situation, interlinear figures have been added to the table, showing the results by groups of one thousand items each. The results for each book are shown in the next five vertical columns respectively. The total number of sampled "running" words in each book is shown at the bottom of each column; the number and percentage of these total "running" words furnished by each of the groups listed in the first column are shown in their respective places.

⁵ Page 3. S. P. A. Witty and L. L. La Brant, "Vocabulary and Reading," *School and Society*, (Feb. 22, 1930).

TABLE I

SHOWING IN EACH OF FIVE TEXTS THE PERCENTAGE OF RUNNING WORDS PROVIDED BY (1) THE FIRST 69 ITEMS IN *FRENCH WORD BOOK* (PART I), (2) BY THE DIFFERENT GROUPS OF 500 (ALSO OF 1000) IN *FRENCH WORD BOOK* (PART II), ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER ACCORDING TO RANGE AND FREQUENCY AND (3) BY WORDS *not* IN *FRENCH WORD BOOK*.

| | I | | II | | III | | IV | | V | |
|--|-------------------|---------|--------------------|---------|-------------------|---------|-------------------|---------|---------------|---------|
| | <i>Les Oberlé</i> | | <i>Mare-Diable</i> | | <i>Cher Tommy</i> | | <i>Tour-Monde</i> | | <i>Contes</i> | |
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| 69 Items Part I—Wd. Bk. | 2963 | 57.86 | 2173 | 62.12 | 2970 | 58.97 | 2213 | 54.29 | 2317 | 55.80 |
| Words 1-500 R F R F 85 1232 48 124 | 1067 | 20.83 | 714 | 20.41 | 935 | 18.56 | 877 | 21.52 | 808 | 19.47 |
| Words 501-1000 R F R F 48 123 33 116 | 356 | 6.95 | 190 | 5.43 | 257 | 5.10 | 285 | 6.99 | 267 | 6.43 |
| Total 1-1000 | 1423 | 27.78 | 904 | 25.84 | 1192 | 23.66 | 1162 | 28.51 | 1075 | 25.90 |
| Words 1001-1500 R F R F 33 106 25 55 | 203 | 3.96 | 84 | 2.40 | 209 | 4.15 | 149 | 3.66 | 130 | 3.13 |
| Words 1501-2000 R F R F 25 55 19 76 | 116 | 2.27 | 58 | 1.66 | 121 | 2.40 | 86 | 2.11 | 85 | 2.05 |
| Total 1001-2000 | 319 | 6.23 | 142 | 4.06 | 330 | 6.55 | 235 | 5.77 | 215 | 5.18 |

TABLE I (continued)

| | I | | II | | III | | IV | | V | |
|---|-----------------------------|---------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|
| | <i>Les Oberlé</i> Number | Percent | <i>Mare-Diable</i> Number | Percent | <i>Cher Tommy</i> Number | Percent | <i>Tour-Monde</i> Number | Percent | <i>Contes</i> Number | Percent |
| Words 2001-2500 R F R F 19 68 16 18 | 87 | 1.70 | 46 | 1.32 | 90 | 1.79 | 83 | 2.03 | 78 | 1.88 |
| Words 2501-3000 R F R F 16 18 13 15 | 75 | 1.47 | 28 | .80 | 65 | 1.29 | 50 | 1.23 | 79 | 1.90 |
| Total 2001-3000 | 162 | 3.17 | 74 | 2.12 | 155 | 3.08 | 133 | 3.26 | 157 | 3.78 |
| Words 3001-3500 R F R F 13 15 10 22 | 43 | .84 | 23 | .66 | 61 | 1.21 | 45 | 1.11 | 39 | .94 |
| Words 3501-4000 R F R F 10 22 9 11 | 32 | .62 | 26 | .74 | 35 | .70 | 38 | .93 | 36 | .86 |
| Total 3001-4000 | 75 | 1.44 | 49 | 1.40 | 96 | 1.91 | 83 | 2.04 | 75 | 1.80 |
| Words 4001-4500 R F R F 9 11 7 12 | 27 | .53 | 22 | .63 | 34 | .68 | 33 | .81 | 29 | .70 |

TABLE I (continued)

| | I | | II | | III | | IV | | V | |
|---|-----------------------------|---------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|
| | <i>Les Oberlé</i> Number | Percent | <i>Mare-Diable</i> Number | Percent | <i>Cher Tommy</i> Number | Percent | <i>Tour-Monde</i> Number | Percent | <i>Contes</i> Number | Percent |
| Words 4501-5000 R F R F 7 12 6 9 | 19 | .37 | 14 | .40 | 40 | .79 | 27 | .66 | 26 | .63 |
| Total 4001-5000 | 46 | .90 | 36 | 1.03 | 74 | 1.47 | 60 | 1.47 | 55 | 1.33 |
| Words 5001-5500 R F R F 6 9 5 9 | 19 | .37 | 13 | .37 | 24 | .47 | 28 | .69 | 19 | .46 |
| Words 5501-6067 R F R F 5 9 5 5 | 15 | .30 | 15 | .43 | 21 | .42 | 25 | .61 | 33 | .79 |
| Total 5001-6067 | 34 | .67 | 28 | .80 | 45 | .89 | 53 | 1.30 | 52 | 1.25 |
| Words not in French Word Book | 99 | 1.95 | 92 | 2.63 | 175 | 3.47 | 137 | 3.36 | 206 | 4.96 |
| Total No. Running Words in Each Book | 5118 | 100.00 | 3498 | 100.00 | 5037 | 100.00 | 4076 | 100.00 | 4152 | 100.00 |

First, we note that of the 5118 running words sampled in *Les Oberlé*, for example, 2963 running words, or 57.86 percent, are made up of the first 69 items of Part I of *French Word Book*. Looking at the corresponding percentages for the other four books, we find that in all of them, over 50 percent of the total running words is made up of these 69 items. It is interesting to note that in a few individual pages of *La Mare au Diable*, as high as 73 percent of the running word content is provided by these 69 items. The reader will note that there is a striking uniformity in the figures obtained for all five books, a fact which would seem to indicate the reliability of the results arrived at. There are no glaring discrepancies anywhere.

The next largest percentage of the running word content of all five books examined is composed of items drawn from the first 500 items in *French Word Book* (Part II), ranging from 18.56 percent *Mon Cher Tommy* to 21.52 percent in *Le Tour du Monde*.

There is an abrupt drop in the content percentage in passing from Group 1 to Group 2, the greatest drop occurring in *La Mare au Diable* (from 20.41 percent to 5.43 percent) and the least drop in *Choix de Contes* (from 19.47 percent to 6.43 percent). The drop does not, of course, occur exactly at the division point between any two groups. We may, therefore, risk the statement, for these five books at least, that if the student is familiar with the 69 items and the first five hundred items in *French Word Book*, he will be familiar with from 75.25 percent of the running word content of *Choix de Contes* to 82.53 percent of that of *La Mare au Diable*.

There is another much smaller, but still noticeable, drop in passing from Group 2 to Group 3, ranging from .95 percent in *Mon Cher Tommy* to 3.33 percent in *Le Tour du Monde*. Thus, we may state further that if the student is familiar with the 69 items and the first thousand words in *French Word Book*, he will be familiar with from 81.70 percent of the running word content of *Choix de Contes* to 87.96 percent of that of *La Mare au Diable*.

From this point on, there is very little drop in percentage of content between succeeding groups. Reliability then seems to decrease as the degree of difference in percentages between groups decreases. Where shall we draw the line? This is a question which we shall attempt to answer with some degree of confidence later in the study.

In Figure I, which is a graphic representation of Table I, it is easy to visualize the part played by these respective groups of words.

From both Table I and Figure I, we see that if a student is familiar with the 69 items of Part I, plus the first two thousand words of Part II (Groups 1, 2, 3 and 4), he will, in so far as vocabulary alone plays a part in reading, be able to read from 86.88 percent to 92.02 percent of each book examined. Now the question arises: What shall we conclude about the other 8 percent to 13 percent with which we can *not* assume that he is familiar?

In order to ascertain the importance for reading purposes of the rôle played by this 8 percent to 13 percent of the running word content (i.e., the last group at the bottom of each column of Figure I), a special tabulation was made. The purpose of this tabulation was to ascertain the number of books examined to which every word in our sampling is common. The results of this procedure are shown in Table II.

From this table, we see that the first five hundred group, Group 1, is the only group that furnishes words in any considerable amount in every range, except the 69 items, which are, of course, common to all five texts in large quantities. Group 2 furnishes only three words common to all five texts, and Group 3, only one word common to all five. As we pass from the more frequent to the less frequent groups, i.e., from Group 1 towards Group 12, we note a marked decrease in the percentages of words common to two or more texts. We may interpret this fact in two ways. First, it tends to corroborate the reliability of the *French Word Book* list, as to the relative rank order of its items from the standpoint of range and frequency. Secondly, those words which fall outside of the first 2000 words of the word list are infrequently used and few of them are common to more than one or two authors, and hence, such words are much less effective for reading purposes.

As to the words found in our sampling which do not appear at all in *French Word Book*, 96.4 percent of them do not appear in any of the other books except the one in which they are found; the other 3.6 percent are found to be common to only two of the texts; and none of them are common to as many as three texts. This seems to validate the basis on which they were excluded from *French Word Book*, and to prove that the elementary student need not learn

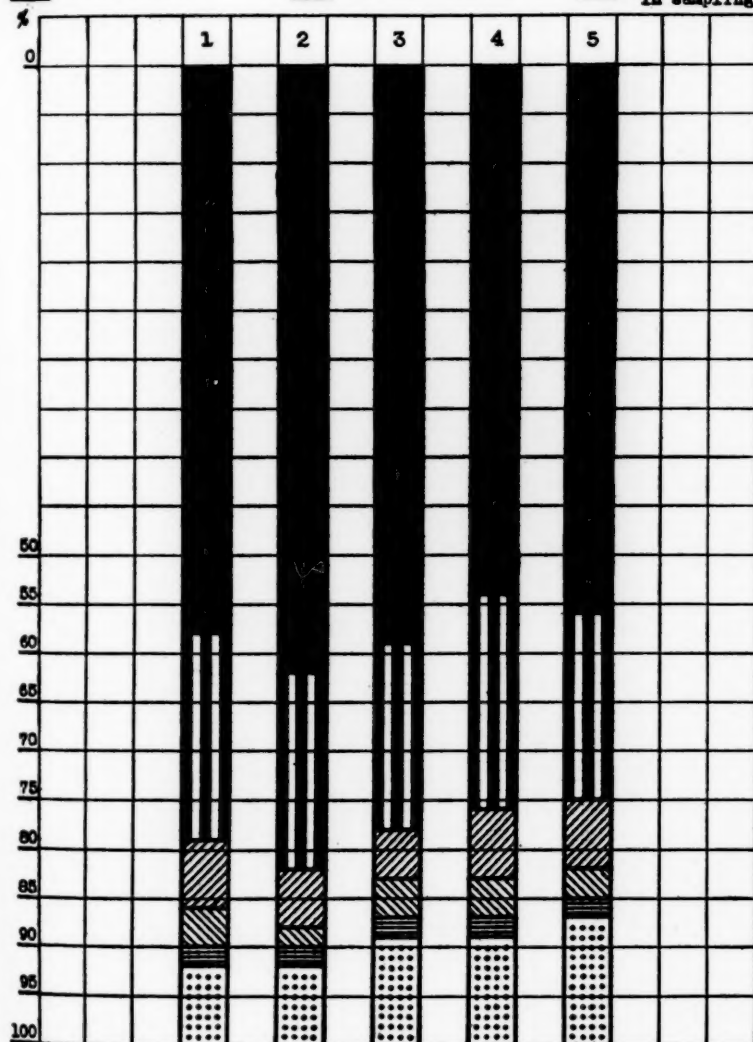
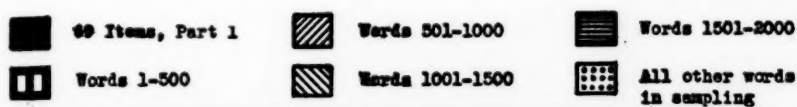


FIGURE I

TABLE II
SHOWING THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DIFFERENT WORDS FOUND IN EACH GROUP OF 500 (ALSO OF 1000) IN *FRENCH WORD BOOK* AND THE CORRESPONDING NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WORDS NOT LISTED IN *FRENCH WORD BOOK* OCCURRING IN ONE TEXT ONLY, OR COMMON TO TWO TEXTS, THREE TEXTS, FOUR TEXTS, OR ALL FIVE TEXTS.

| Range | *1. Number | Percent | 2. Number | Percent | 3. Number | Percent | 4. Number | Percent | 5. Number | Percent |
|------------------|---------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|
| Words 1-500 | 43 | 8.9 | 96 | 19.9 | 111 | 23.0 | 119 | 24.6 | 114 | 23.6 |
| Words 501-1000 | 152 | 35.8 | 157 | 36.9 | 84 | 19.8 | 29 | 6.8 | 3 | .7 |
| Total: 1-1000 | 195 | 21.5 | 253 | 27.8 | 195 | 21.5 | 148 | 16.3 | 117 | 12.9 |
| Words 1001-1500 | 167 | 50.2 | 128 | 38.4 | 28 | 8.4 | 9 | 2.7 | 1 | .3 |
| Words 1501-2000 | 191 | 71.8 | 63 | 23.7 | 10 | 3.8 | 2 | .7 | | |
| Total: 1001-2000 | 358 | 59.8 | 191 | 31.9 | 38 | 6.3 | 11 | 1.8 | 1 | .2 |
| Words 2001-2500 | 162 | 77.1 | 38 | 18.1 | 9 | 4.3 | 1 | .5 | | |
| Words 2501-3000 | 149 | 78.8 | 34 | 18.0 | 4 | 2.0 | 1 | .6 | 1 | .6 |
| Total: 2001-3000 | 311 | 77.9 | 72 | 18.0 | 13 | 3.3 | 2 | .5 | 1 | .3 |

* Bear in mind constantly that these figures represent "range," i.e., the number of books in which the sampled words were found, and do not indicate Book I, II, etc., as was the case in Table I.

TABLE II (continued)

| Range | *1. Number | Percent | 2. Number | Percent | 3. Number | Percent | 4. Number | Percent | 5. Number | Percent |
|----------------------------------|---------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|---------|
| Words 3001-3500 | 114 | 83.8 | 22 | 16.2 | | | | | | |
| Words 3501-4000 | 107 | 87.7 | 14 | 11.5 | 1 | .8 | | | | |
| Total: 3001-4000 | 221 | 85.6 | 36 | 14.0 | 1 | .4 | | | | |
| Words 4001-4500 | 94 | 90.4 | 8 | 7.7 | 2 | 1.9 | | | | |
| Words 4501-5000 | 74 | 87.1 | 8 | 9.6 | 1 | 1.1 | 1 | 1.1 | 1 | 1.1 |
| Total: 4001-5000 | 168 | 88.9 | 16 | 8.5 | 3 | 1.6 | 1 | .5 | 1 | .5 |
| Words 5001-5500 | 74 | 92.5 | 5 | 6.3 | 1 | 1.2 | | | | |
| Words 5501-6067 | 67 | 85.9 | 9 | 11.5 | 1 | 1.3 | 1 | 1.3 | | |
| Total: 5001-6067 | 141 | 89.2 | 14 | 8.9 | 2 | 1.3 | 1 | .6 | | |
| Words not in French Word Book | 597 | 96.4 | 22 | 3.6 | | | | | | |
| GRAND TOTAL | 1991 | 63.6 | 604 | 19.3 | 252 | 8.0 | 163 | 5.3 | 120 | 3.8 |

(3130 Different Words in All.)

them, as he will probably never meet the majority of them again.

All the words in the last group at the bottom of each column in Figure I (words drawn from Groups 5 to 12, inclusive, plus all words found in the sampling and not listed by Vander Beke), are infrequently used; hence, the student will encounter them less frequently, in fact, much less frequently than he will encounter words which fall within the first 2000. Upon the basis of the percentages obtained in Table I, we may safely conclude that the time spent by the average student during the elementary period in becoming familiar with words beyond the 2000 level can not be justified by the additional effectiveness in reading gained therefrom.

Even if we assume that these words beyond the 2000 level have an importance which has been denied them in the last paragraph, there is an important factor which operates to make their inclusion in any course of study unnecessary. This is the question of cognates. A careful examination of all items in the Vander Beke list beyond the 2000 level seems to indicate that between 40 percent and 50 percent of them are recognizable cognates, the percentage increasing as we go from Group 5 towards Group 12. As these percentages are based entirely on subjective judgment, a classroom experiment might lower considerably these figures. In any event, the number of unknown words per page is so small (See Figure I), that the student could be said to be reading with comprehension, even if he had not already become familiar with the few words left, whose meaning could not be readily inferred.

In short, since the vast majority of students in the schools throughout the United States study only two years of French, it is probable that little can be done for the majority beyond giving them a usable knowledge of the language, so that after graduation, they may read French of average difficulty for their own personal enjoyment or for professional purposes. No adequate experimental study has been made of the rate at which most students add to their vocabulary. My investigation throws no light on that problem. It does, however, create a very strong probability that the acquisition for reading purposes of a vocabulary approximately of the size and character indicated, is a primary consideration in a two-year elementary course in the secondary school, or in a one-year elementary course in the college, in cases in which these courses aim

at the development of reading ability on the part of the majority of the students.

This study should aid French teachers towards a more definite knowledge of just what their task is in terms of vocabulary. Experimentation to establish the increments in vocabulary acquisition by most students, by semesters and by years, is evidently the next step that should be taken.

Finally, from the results set forth and interpreted above, we may state with some assurance that the 69 items of Part I and the first 2000 words of Part II of Vander Beke's *French Word Book* constitute a minimum essential French reading vocabulary.

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To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

‘ALS’ AND ‘WIE’

The two subordinating conjunctions, *als* and *wie*, meaning *as* or *when*, are used interchangeably in modern German. Common usage has apparently wiped out the fine differences between these two words. Both are used for a single action in the past and both have a temporal meaning. Yet there is a difference between them.

I. *Wie* denotes immediate sequence and *als* implies contemporaneousness. *Wie er mich sah, kam er auf mich zu*, and *Als er mich sah, kam er auf mich zu*, are not the same mental picture. The “*wie*-sentence” accentuates the sequence, namely, first he saw me, then he came towards me; the “*als*-sentence” conveys the simultaneous happening of the two clauses, namely, the same moment he saw me, he came towards me.

II. When the verb is in the present tense, *als* is rarely used. Usage prefers *wie*. Goethe sings:

Und wie er sitzt, und wie er lauscht,
Teilt sich die Flut empor . . .

Schiller uses *wie* in the same way:

Und wie er erwacht in seliger Lust,
Da spülen die Wasser ihm um die Brust . . .

Yet we find that Schiller uses *als* before an historical present tense:

Als ich das Vorgemach durchgehe . . .

III. *Als* and *wie* are also used in combination with *wenn*. Here is no longer any difference in meaning, although it seems that *als wenn* is used in everyday language, while *wie wenn* is used in poetical speech. Schiller says:

Und es waltet und siedet und brauset und zischt
Wie wenn Wasser mit Feuer sich mengt . . .

The *wenn* in *wie wenn* is never omitted, the *wenn* in *als wenn* is often omitted, and then *als* is followed by the inverted word-order, e.g., the predicate before the subject. The three sentences:

- a) Er sieht aus, als wenn er krank wäre.
- b) Er sieht aus, wie wenn er krank wäre.
- c) Er sieht aus, als wäre er krank.

are absolutely identical in meaning.

IV. There is another combination with *als* and not with *wie*, namely, *als ob*. Though common usage employs *als wenn* and *als ob* interchangeably, there is a fine difference between them. *Als ob* expresses the idea that appearance and reality agree, or at least

might do so. *Als wenn* and *wie wenn* express the idea that appearance stands in no relation to reality, that it is merely appearance.

Er sah aus, als ob er krank wäre, then means that apparently he was sick and looked it. *Er sieht aus, als wenn er krank wäre* means he is not sick, but appearance might make you believe it.

V. *Als* and *wie* after a comparative idea have lost their function as subordinating conjunctions and are conveniently called *Vergleichungswörter* or particles. Careless usage substitutes one for the other, some grammars even teach that *als* and *wie* as *Vergleichungswörter* are identical. Correct usage demands *als* after a comparison of different or unequal objects or ideas, hence after a comparative degree and the word *anders*. *Wie* must be used after a comparison of equal or similar objects or ideas. *Er ist älter als ich*, but *Er ist so alt wie ich*. Goethe is very careful in the use of *als* and *wie*. He says: *Und bin ich denn so elend, wie ich scheine?* and then: *Nichts ist höher zu schützen, als der Wert des Tages*.

In a book of recent publication I read the following sentence: *Niemand anders hat gesprochen wie du*. It is not immediately clear what the author meant unless one knows the correct meaning of *wie*. People who carelessly use *als* and *wie* interchangeably might interpret the sentence so: "No one spoke but you." Remember: *wie* is used to express equality, hence the correct interpretation is: "No one spoke like you," namely, as inspiringly as only you can speak. To express the sentence: "No one spoke but you," *als* must be used, i.e., *Niemand anders als du hat gesprochen*.

VI. When no comparative degree or no *so . . . wie* is used, *als* and *wie* are used in a different manner. *Wie* retains its meaning of similarity but not of equality, *als*, however, loses its meaning of inequality and is used as a particle of identity. In other words: *wie* is the particle of similarity to compare two concepts, *als* is the particle of identity to show the equality of two concepts. *Er starb als Held* means he was a hero and as such he died. *Er starb wie ein Held* means he died like a hero or as a hero would have died. The meaning of *als* as a particle of identity is also shown in an explanatory idea: *Sie sah nur auf äußerliche Dinge als Kleider, Schmuck und Zierrat*.

LOTTE OLGA LOHSTOETER

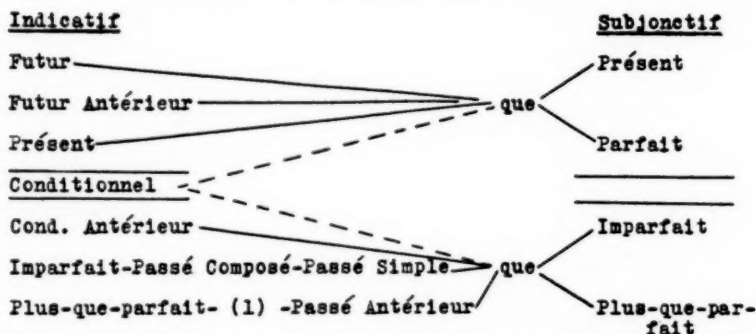
University of Pittsburgh

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

A CHRONOLOGICAL CHART OF THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE AS AN AID IN THE TEACHING OF THEIR USE

The following chronological chart of the tenses of the indicative and subjunctive is valuable as a means of showing the relation of the tenses, and of impressing upon the pupil the fact that tense means time. Probably the greatest value to be derived from the

chart is in its presentation which must be made carefully, tense by tense. This is easily done at the blackboard, but one is forced, in an article of this type, to show the complete chart and then make reference to the method of developing it in the classroom.



In the first year, the tenses may be placed in the chart as they are studied, but there is indicated here a practical method of explanation of the whole chart which should be made frequently during the second year.

Naturally, one starts with the *Présent*. It is a long time in French and in English, before the pupil ceases to believe that "there is no tense like the present." Here one stresses the point that the action is going on now, even though it may have been started in the past (constructions with *depuis*, *y a . . . que*, *voilà . . . que*, etc.).

Then, at a higher level in the chart, is placed the *Futur*, to express an action to take place some time ahead.

The *Futur Antérieur* is placed on a level above the *Présent* and below the *Futur* to denote an action which is not yet going on, but which will have been completed before another future event.

This chronological relation of the *Présent*, *Futur*, and *Futur Antérieur* is adequately illustrated by the two statements: *A ce moment je pars pour la maison. Après que j'y serai arrivé, je vous téléphonerai.*

Let us now drop to the level which expresses past action, where we find three tenses, the *Imparfait*, *Passé Composé*, and *Passé Simple*.

Such a sentence as *Il étudiait quand je suis arrivé*, will show that these actions, the former continuous, the latter completed, occur along the same time level. The pupil should know that the *Passé Simple* is, like the *Passé Composé*, a tense showing completed action, but for literary use.

Just as the *Présent* has its *Futur Antérieur* and *Futur*, the tenses on the past level have their *Conditionnel Antérieur* and *Conditionnel*.

Let us not consider these tenses of a separate mood, but for simplicity's sake fit them into the scheme of the indicative. Any English translation of a *Conditionnel Antérieur*, or its other nomenclature *Conditionnel Passé*, will show it to be a real past.

The pupil will see that logically the *Conditionnel* belongs where it is placed in the chart. Such a sentence as *Hier matin je croyais qu'il viendrait à midi* shows that this tense clearly expresses a future in the past,* and thus has some claim to a level in the past.

Sentences such as *Je voudrais* (polite form of *je veux*) *vous parler maintenant* and its nomenclature (*Conditionnel Présent*), show that it has tendencies to the present level. At best, it is easily seen that it is on the border line, which helps admirably in explaining the possibility of its being followed by either Primary or Secondary tenses of the subjunctive.

An action which is more remote than the *Imparfait—Passé Composé—Passé Simple* level is expressed by the *Plus-que-Parfait* and *Passé Antérieur*. The sentence *Après que j'avais fini mes devoirs, je suis sorti* will show the need of this level. The *Plus-que-Parfait* by its formation belongs below the *Imparfait*. The *Passé Antérieur* likewise shows its relation to the *Passé Simple*, thereby coming under the heading of literary tenses.

(1) If we needed to teach the *Passé Surcomposé*, it would fall very nicely under the *Passé Composé*, but for our conversational use, the *Plus-que-Parfait* will suffice.

Let us now make the *Conditionnel Présent* the dividing level between those tenses which are strictly Primary and these which are strictly Secondary.

The position of the tenses of the subjunctive in the chart speaks for itself.

After a Primary tense, if the action of the verb in the subjunctive is past with regard to the main verb, the *Parfait* must be used. Otherwise the *Présent*.

After a Secondary tense, if the action of the verb of the subjunctive is, shall we say, more past with regard to the main verb, the *Plus-que-Parfait* is used. Otherwise the *Imparfait*.

A more vivid explanation of the sequence of Tenses in the Subjunctive may be given by first illustrating the sequence of Tenses in the Indicative.

Let us assume the following situation: Jean comes to school every day at 8 o'clock. Henri at 10, and Georges at 12. It is now 10 o'clock today and my reactions are as follows:

* Brunot, in his *Observations sur la Grammaire de l'Académie Française*, recognizes a tense of the indicative which may be considered either a "futur dans le passé" or an "imparfait du futur." This tense has the forms of the conditionnel. He does, however, state that the nomenclature "conditionnel temps" is odd. (P. 69, Par. 2.)

(10 h.) Je sais que { Georges viendra à midi.
Henri vient maintenant (10 h.)
Jean est venu à 8 h.

Yesterday at 10 o'clock my reactions were as follows:

(10 h.) Je savais que { Georges viendrait à midi.
Henri venait à ce moment (10 h.)
Jean était venu à 8 h.

Now let us assume an attitude of doubt concerning these actions.

My reactions today:

(10 h.) Je doute que { Georges vienne à midi.
Henri vienne maintenant (10 h.)
Jean soit venu à 8 h.

My reactions yesterday:

(10 h.) Je doutais que { Georges vînt à midi.
Henri vînt à ce moment (10 h.)
Jean fût venu à 8 h.

Since there is no *Futur du Subjonctif*, future time is expressed by the *Présent du Subjonctif*.

Since there is no *Conditionnel du Subjonctif*, future time in the past is expressed by the *Imparfait du Subjonctif*.

It is often found that the average pupil of the secondary school has not a very great knowledge of relative time.

Development of the tenses in a manner similar to this should increase his temporal sense, show the need of tense, demonstrate the logic and accuracy of the French tenses, make the study of tenses interesting, and enable him to recount events correctly as far as tense is concerned. Perhaps, in our attempt to bring about an understanding and appreciation of the tenses in French, we may bring back a recognitional knowledge of the "good old tenses" in English.

HAROLD L. RULAND

Union High School, Union, New Jersey

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

LE CLUB DU FAUBOURG

Dans nul endroit du monde, probablement, on ne peut trouver tant d'étranges contradictions que dans la ville qui est depuis si longtemps le centre de la population française, le centre de son gouvernement, le centre de sa vie. Remplie à demi de vieilles traditions, cette ville a senti comme nulle autre l'empreinte de nouvelles idées. Le siège de multiples écoles anciennes, elle érige depuis des ans ses piliers dans les Temples de la Mode Frivole et de l'Art Culinaire. En tendant la main droite aux savants de tous les pays, elle accueille chaudement ceux qui arrivent à ses portes sans autre pensée que de se divertir. Dans ses confins on peut se donner à

l'heure qui passe, oubliant ses ennuis et ses douleurs, ou l'on peut fixer son attention sur les plus grands problèmes qui distraient l'humanité. Partout elle présente des traits opposés, qui s'unissent, pourtant, dans un tout qui est, sinon toujours harmonieux et uni, au moins tout-inclusif et sans bornes.

Ainsi il arrive que dans cette ville, où les Folies-Bergères et le Marché aux Puces font si forte concurrence pour l'attention du touriste américain, l'étudiant américain peut satisfaire son désir d'entendre et d'employer la langue du pays en allant au Club du Faubourg et même en y prenant part lui-même. Ce Club, le Forum ouvert de Paris, fut fondé après la guerre par un capable Juif, M. Léo Poldès. Il tient trois réunions par semaine, dès le premier novembre jusqu'à la fin de mai, et dans des parties de la ville très différentes. La réunion du mardi soir est près de l'Arc de Triomphe, dans la Grande Salle Wagram; celle du jeudi soir, plus au centre, dans la rue Danton; et celle du samedi après-midi, dans le nord-est de la ville, au Théâtre Rochechouart. Le but du Club est de donner à tous l'occasion d'exprimer leurs opinions librement sur tous les sujets du monde. Les programmes sont publiés trois mois en avance, et il y a des sujets fixes pour chaque réunion. Ces programmes sont d'une nature si large, ils contiennent une si grande variété de sujets, que pendant l'année—ou pendant plusieurs années—on parvient à tout discuter. Et à tout entendre: les idées des chapeliers de France sur la société de Paris nommée les "Sans chapeaux"; ce qu'on pense du gouvernement des colonies; une critique des modes actuelles; une tirade contre "le capitalisme américain," etc., etc. C'est la coutume aussi d'inviter l'auteur d'un nouveau livre à venir présenter un résumé de son livre ou sa thèse. Même les étoiles de l'Opéra ou du théâtre sont convoquées, avec ce qu'elles ont à offrir d'ancien ou de nouveau, et aucune nationalité n'est exclue de la chathèdre. (C'était un jeune Chinois qui dénonça notre capitalisme.)

Chaque programme se divise en trois parties—une, politique; une littéraire; et une, plus générale. Pour chacun de ces trois sujets il y a un ou deux orateurs, nommés à l'avance, et un ou deux—aussi probablement choisis à l'avance—qui ouvrent la discussion. Après cette discussion formelle, c'est au public à s'exprimer comme il veut. Ce public se compose des membres du Club—plusieurs centaines de personnes—et de tous les autres qui sont assez désireux d'assister aux séances pour payer le double de ce que payent les membres, deux fois la somme menue de deux francs. Royalistes, socialistes, communistes, tous sont représentés, et c'est le seul endroit de Paris où l'on voit toujours—et entend—peu d'Américains. Naturellement, où il y a des nationalités et des natures si variées, les opinions sont exprimées de temps à autre d'une manière plus que chaleureuse; et il y a quelquefois deux douzaines qui voudraient parler à la fois. Mais M. Poldès, qui semble être le président

perpétuel du Club, est un manieur de foules et sait bien tenir en ordre sa grande compagnie. C'est rare qu'on soit obligé de mettre quelqu'un à la porte.

Une institution curieuse—ce Club de Faubourg—si démocratique, si caractéristique de la République Française, qui a ses racines dans une grande révolution sociale! Nos villes d'Amérique ont quelquefois leurs Forums, mais ceux-ci sont beaucoup plus exclusifs, plus formels. Nos "intellectuels" ne voudraient jamais s'associer avec tant de patience à "l'homme de la rue."

Visitez le Club du Faubourg, étudiants intéressés au français, quand vous vous trouverez à Paris. Car vous y aurez l'occasion d'augmenter vos connaissances, en entendant pas seulement de nouvelles idées, mais aussi, avec la langue classique parlée à l'Académie et à l'Université, des expressions piquantes, des termes crus et verts, et de l'argot nouveau. En vous joignant aux habitués du Club, vous vous pourvoirez aussi de l'opportunité d'assister, les jours de fête, à ses nombreux dîners et, par conséquent, de former de nouvelles relations à Paris.

Pendant l'été le Club du Faubourg organise des soirées ça et là dans d'autres villes de France, où M. Poldès a, comme toujours à Paris, salle comble et un public agité.

ISABELLE BRONK

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

May we, through your columns, draw the attention of your readers to the third annual Seminar in the Caribbean, to be held in Cuba from March 7 to 14, 1934, under the auspices of The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America?

We believe that, especially in view of recent developments, it is of increasing importance that a growing number of Americans should have insight into the problems, culture, and lives of the Cuban people. The Seminar in Cuba, like our annual Seminar in Mexico, is designed to bring its members into contact with the plans, projects, and beliefs of the leaders of all sectors of opinion in the country.

The Seminar will begin with lectures on shipboard en route from New York to Havana. The program in Cuba will include lectures, round-table discussions, and field trips into the interior. The faculty of the Seminar, leading its discussions and perfecting its contacts with Cuba and Cubans, will include Dr. Ernest Gruening, Miss Elizabeth Wallace, Dr. Chester Lloyd Jones, and Mr. Hubert C. Herring.

Applications and requests for detailed information should be addressed to

Mr. Hubert C. Herring, Executive Director
The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America
112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y.

Notes, News, and Clippings

ITALICA for September, 1933, presents to its readers the following contents: McKenzie, Kenneth, "Il Duecento; Vittorini, D., "Dante e Francesca da Rimini"; "Italica under Professor Austin"; Shaw, J. E., "Bibliography of Italian Studies in America," April-June, 1933; "From the Periodicals; Recent Books; News Notes; Reviews": Nicola Spinelli: *Dizionario Scolastico*; Carlo Collodi: *Le Avventure di Pinocchio*. The department "From the Periodicals" is a new venture. Prof. Van Horne urges his readers to cooperate with him in making it a success.

HISPANIA for October presents to us: "Spanish in the New Curriculum," by Mary Weld Coates; "History and the Individual," by Rudolph Schevill; "Gleanings from Galdós' Correspondence," by H. Chonon Berkowitz; "A Pan American Club Manual," by Joshua Hochstein; "The Crisis," Announcements; Chapter News; Opinions, The "Black Legend of Spain," by Henry Grattan Doyle; Contemporary Spanish Literature, by Frances Douglas; Reviews: *A Bibliography of Cuban Belles-Lettres* (J. D. M. Ford and M. I. Raphael), by Edith L. Kelly.

IN THE FRENCH REVIEW for November we find: "The Influence of Dumas fils on Oscar Wilde," by H. Stanley Schwarz; "The Old and the New," James Geddes; "Le véritable guignol Lyonnais," Suzanne Cros; "H.-R. Lenormand as a Student of the Personality," Eugène Sheffer; Book Reviews; Recent French Books; Bibliography, by Edmund Méras; Varia; Communications and Notes; American Association of Teachers of French.

MONATSHEFTE FÜR DEUTSCHEN UNTERRICHT for October offers its readers: "Deutsche Lyrik in Amerika," Wm Dehorn; "German Kulturkunde," Otto Springer; "Preparing a German Workbook," Otto Koischwitz; Berichte und Notizen: I. Umschau der Schriftleitung, M. G., II German Service Bureau Notes, S. M. Hinz; Bücherbesprechungen.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA has recently acquired a collection of over 12,000 Spanish plays, covering the period 1800-1932. In this set all the major playwrights, and many obscure writers, are represented. There are a few plays by South American authors and several hundred Valencian and Catalan plays. The Department hopes eventually to publish a bibliography of this collection.

SPEECH LABORATORIES are now being established at the University of California in order that practice in pronouncing and speaking modern foreign languages may be available to students. Directors who speak fluently the languages to be studied—French, Spanish, German and Italian—will aid in the practice sessions. The directors appointed to head the work in the various languages are: Mrs. Helen Sanz, graduate student, French; Hans Wolfgang Poppe, graduate student, German; Dr. George Curti, visiting instructor in Italian, Italian; and Antonio Heras, professor of Spanish, Spanish.

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE COURSES IN RADIO, Circular No. 53, Office of Education, Department of the Interior, embodies a study by Clive M. Koon, Specialist in Education by Radio, of the college and university courses dealing with radio communication. *References on Radio Control and Operation*, another bulletin, compiled by Mr. Koon is issued to meet the request for material on the subject of government control of the radio.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GRADUATE STUDY ABROAD is the title of a folder which may be obtained by addressing the Secretary, Student Bureau, Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th St., New York City. Since all applications must be filed by January 15, all interested should write for this informative bulletin at once. It might be well to note that preference is given to unmarried candidates under 30 years of age. A bulletin entitled "Fellowships and Scholarships Open to American Students for Study in Foreign Countries" may be obtained from the same source for 25 cents.

Reviews

FINAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES (Containing Reading List in French, The Secondary Curriculum, Supplement II). Milton, Massachusetts: Issued by the Secondary Education Board, 1933. 122 pages plus lists of member schools, foreword and members of the committee on foreign languages.

This Report is more than a syllabus. It is an eminently sane exposition of the aims and methods of teaching modern foreign languages, with an outline of the work to be accomplished in each year of several courses, a discussion of tests and examinations, with classified reading lists and a good bibliography.

I must confess that the reading of this Report gave me a warm feeling of optimism and happiness in respect to the future of modern language teaching in this country. Although the report is for the best private schools in the East, it can not but have a powerful influence on the colleges, on the one hand, and on the public high schools, on the other.

I cannot take up, a tenth of the points stressed in this Report. I must content myself with bringing into prominence certain features of it which might well commend themselves to the attention of public high school administrators and to professional educators.

First among these features is the question of aims or objectives, and second, the time-allowance for attaining them. The committee "stress the attainment of such desirable capacities as reading with a view to direct comprehension, the direct aural understanding of the foreign language, and the direct expression of thought, orally and in writing, *with grammatical correctness (italics are mine)*. For the attainment of these objectives, the committee demands a time allowance of 3, 4, 5, 6 years (never less than three years except for the third modern foreign language), with insistence upon the elimination of the linguistic inept and unfit pupils at the end of the second year. It has been quite conclusively proven by scientific investigations that two years only of the study of a modern language, especially in the lower grades of a school course, are inadequate for a reasonable approach to the realization of the desired objectives, are also productive of little language knowledge, and are of no great educational value."

I am afraid I shocked the modern language teachers at their meeting in Troy, New York, recently when I said that if I were a modern language Mussolini in this State, I should throw out of the modern language classes two thirds of the pupils, provided I could keep the upper-third for three years.

We could have a three year course if the colleges would cooperate to this extent: either refuse to accept less than three years of a foreign language for entrance, or require the entrants with two years to their credit to continue the language for one year in college.*

This Report makes provision for rapid advancement classes and for concentration (specialization) in the last two years of the five- and six-year courses. That accounts for the fact, I suppose, that Maurois praised so highly his students in French in Princeton University, which draws its students so largely from the private schools.

The Report also stresses correlation of the modern language instruction with other subjects, especially English. To a large extent it condemns oral class-room translation into English, but provides for the teaching of standards of translation (a) by the teacher's version, (b) by famous translations, and (c) by assignments of home-written translations, to be rated by the teacher of the modern language and by the teacher of English. All this is most admirable, but the Report fails, I think, to distinguish adequately the difference between translation into English as a method of teaching the language, on the one hand, and a method of testing comprehension, on the other. The one is to be condemned or used sparingly, the other, in my opinion, can never be dispensed with.

I recommend this Report to the careful consideration of certain of our metropolitan modern language panjandrums who are obsessed with the two-year course of direct reading for comprehension, with no single mention in their syllabi of the word *accuracy*.

WILLIAM R. PRICE

Albany, New York

ARMANDO PALACIO VALDÉS. *José*, edited with preface, introduction, exercises and vocabulary by Juan Cano and Edith Cameron. New York: Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., 1932. xxiv+211 pp., 128 pp. text.

This new edition of *José* for American students has a very special purpose; otherwise it would be only a commercial filler and it

* Here, of course, arises the old question, raised by Ben Wood, of time-serving. In my opinion Wood's conclusions from his New York State New-Type Tests have little validity, for two reasons: First, the pupils did not take his test seriously—they knew that the old-type test (Regents) would determine their promotion and their state credit. They took the test in the same spirit of levity that prevailed in the army testing—it was a lark. In the second place, Wood's condemnation of the old-type tests on the ground that a pupil might fail in the two-year examination and pass the three-year examination, failed to take in consideration the fact that certain definite factual knowledge is required by the syllabus in the first two years and taken for granted (not retested) in the third year.

would deserve scant attention from the profession, as *José* has already been amply and ably edited. Miss Cameron thus states the editors' aim: "While some teachers may wish to use the text for translation, the purpose of this edition is to stimulate direct reading" (p. viii). Omission of proper names, non-deceptive cognates and of many of the first 189 entries in the Buchanan word list, aided by a sharp and scientific simplification of the Spanish text has resulted in a vocabulary of 1360 words, thus making a version undoubtedly simple enough for direct reading at an early stage in language study. The editors have fully accomplished their primary purpose. The Preface does not need the slightly militant note in such statements as: "Although successful teachers of modern foreign languages have long believed that development of the ability to read is the most important business of the class-room" (p. vii) and "It is generally agreed that the novel *José* meets every requirement of the class-room except one—graded vocabulary" (p. vii). The basic truth of these declarations may be readily admitted, but such categorical statements encourage disagreement.

Before leaving the limited vocabulary feature, it should be noted that the actual vocabulary is larger than the 1360 words mentioned above. The words of the *Introducción* are not included in the *Vocabulario*, and these would increase the count well over 100. Many teachers will consider this regrettable, since the *Introducción* is full of extremely useful information. Yet the teacher alone is expected to read it, for it contains many words like *feligreses*, *viarachos*, *mullido*, *proemio*, *paisano* which seemingly occur nowhere else in the edition. The same objection applies to an occasional note, e.g. p. 83 where *sentencia bíblica* is used. The student might well guess *bíblica*, but he would probably not know the special significance of *sentencia*. Proper names do not appear in the part of the book marked *Vocabulario* and thus do not appear in the count, but the student has to learn them just the same—and they would certainly be as convenient in the vocabulary as in an appendix by themselves. There are nearly 50 such names.

The *Ejercicios* occupy over 40 pages, and offer abundant material for those doing direct reading and those seeking other linguistic skills. Exercises are of five kinds: *Preguntas*, *sí* or *no* statements, completion sentences, idioms to be memorized, and discussion themes of the *resuelto que* type. They could hardly be improved except for the discussion themes. These are of slight value because *José* presents no very complicated moral or social problems. It is primarily a novel of local color. Such topics as *El tipo de belleza femenina de Rodillero es el mejor que hay en el mundo* and *El carácter de los pescadores es más noble que el de los campesinos* offer little to discuss. *Sólo la gente ignorante cree en las brujas*, on the contrary, is a very stimulating proposition. Most of the discussion themes could be added to the *sí* or *no* sections. The idiom treatment is very valuable.

Apéndice B should be of great assistance to the reader. An intimate knowledge of cognates is necessary to scientific guessing, and without such guessing a simplified text with reduced vocabulary could hardly be used for direct reading.

More brief notes rather than less would seem to be required in this kind of text, since the student should not have to interrupt his reading in order to consult an encyclopedia or a teacher for simple references. This edition presents its notes at the bottom of the page and in Spanish. They are adequate, though not too numerous. Such expressions as *¡Allí fué Troya!* (p. 7), *tratando de que nadie lo notase* (p. 20), *no existe mayor dolor . . .* (p. 72) would benefit by explanation. Sometimes a very easy expression receives unnecessary explanation—*Me parece que no* (p. 79), *es poco* (p. 83)—or is explained more than once: *a cómo* (p. 14, p. 37 and in the vocabulary). *El mar* and *la mar* appear about 40 times each, but no effort at explaining this phenomenon is made. This question of gender in *mar* may well be outside the scope of a direct reading text, but it is certain to confuse and intrigue the better type of student.

On the whole, the editors have been very skillful in simplifying the text. They are to be congratulated on not allowing a passion for reduced vocabulary to rid the text of such words as *ratones*, *lagartijas* and *murciélagos*, which are definitely needed for local color in spite of their specialized usefulness. Textual changes bring up a question which must be considered sooner or later. Is there any real loss of story and literary value in such limited vocabulary editions? The editors in this case very thoughtfully had their text read by Palacio Valdés, and so can make this statement: "Authoritative guarantee of the quality of the present work lies in the fact that Señor Palacio Valdés granted permission for this school edition after his inspection of Professor Cano's version" (p. x). This is high authority and the editors' precaution is a worthy one, but it does not so easily dispose of the whole problem of gain or loss in literary value in simplified texts. In this edition of *José* the story remains intact. There is a considerable literary value left as well, but there is a loss in what I might call "linguistic local color." The Bible appears in sundry English editions, among which are to be found certain simplified versions suitable to children. The Biblical narrative remains reasonably intact, but I do not believe that anyone devoted to the King James version would ever admit that no literary values were lost in making a simplified text for children. They are simply different books, even if they relate the same story; both may be justified.

Something of this kind applies to this edition of *José*, though the matter is not serious. A deal of argument is made over the question of using the first or later editions of *José*. This is really of no great importance, since the editor of a simplified text assumes the right to delete any expression of the author and supply a simpler

one of his own. It becomes the editor's first edition, not the author's. In some novels this would be a more serious matter than in *José*, since *José* does not depend very largely on picturesque style or vocabulary. Its style is simple, in conformity with the subject matter; thus the editors are carrying the process but one step farther.

Misprints are few. Printing and proof-reading are of a high order, though correction might be made in *nigún* (p. xix), *comparase* (p. 1), *bajo* (p. 13), *según* (p. 20), *desde* (p. 201), *usual* (p. 202), and in a few cases of punctuation which are hardly worth mentioning here.

All this detailed discussion does not mean that Professor Cano and Miss Cameron have not rendered the profession a very real service in editing this text. They have; but we must remember that editing for direct reading is still in its infancy, and we must expect considerable experimentation before arriving at any satisfactory general standard.

WILFRED A. BEARDSLEY

Goucher College

J. FRED RIPPY. *Historical Evolution of Hispanic America*. New York: F. S. Crofts and Sons, 1932. xviii + 580 pp.

Professor Rippy will pardon the reactions of a modern language teacher to his compact book. He has presented his subject from the origins down to our own day, even including the current depression. In general, the reader feels especial satisfaction and security in the modern field, where great quantities of organized and reliable information are offered. The logical and chronological succession of events, characterizations of administrations, the *caudillo* period, the rise of the A.B.C. states, international relations and many other topics are ably discussed.

In the colonial period one does not feel the same satisfaction. Few concessions are made to fundamental documents of Spanish (and Portuguese) literature. Somehow the book doesn't seem sufficiently organic without them. We miss the fusion with history of Bernal Díaz, Motolinía, the *Araucana*, or, to enter the period of independence, *El Periquillo Sarmiento* and *Facundo*. One is puzzled by the note on page 93, in which reference is made to Sor Juana Inés de Santa Cruz. Surely the gifted poetess, in a sense the epitome of one section of colonial civilization, deserved something better than a hasty and incorrect reference.

The teacher of Spanish would like to see a little more prominence given to the language of Hispanic America. Probably most people really interested in Hispanic American history can understand some Spanish at least. However, we must recognize that historians of Spanish and Portuguese America resident in other countries have thorny problems. Let us be grateful and congratulate

Professor Rippy for his painstaking, accurate, thoughtful presentation of the sequence of events, particularly for the recent rapidly moving generations.

JOHN VAN HORNE

University of Illinois

LAURO DE BOSIS. *The Golden Book of Italian Poetry*. With a foreword by Professor G. M. Trevelyan, O.M. Annotated edition. London and New York: Oxford University Press, 1933. xxxii + 319 pp.

Professor Trevelyan's preface recounts the circumstances that led to the mysterious disappearance of the editor in 1931. We turn from this recital with a certain awe and respect to De Bosis' own sketch of Italian literature and to the poem and notes that follow.

The poems are judiciously chosen from all the centuries of Italian literature. Naturally, most selections are lyric poems, but passages from the *Divine Comedy* and the romances of chivalry are included. The book hardly has the distinction, authority and completeness of the *Oxford Book of Italian Verse*, but is of course more economical for class use. In the reviewer's opinion, the notes would be more serviceable at the foot of each page. However, there is no real fault to find. The book is very usable in advanced Italian classes, and may be heartily recommended for that purpose.

JOHN VAN HORNE

University of Illinois

The Sonnets of Petrarch. Translated by Joseph Auslander. London, New York, Toronto: Longmans, Green and Co., 1931.

Students and teachers of Italian, although interested in translations from Italian to English, are primarily concerned with Italian originals; nevertheless, it is a pleasure to read these sonnets in English and to testify to their smoothness and flavor. The reviewer thinks very highly of Foulke's *Some Love Songs of Petrarch*. However, the two versions do not contain all the same poems. Foulke has some *canzoni* and not all the sonnets. Reading of the book now being reviewed is facilitated by indices of first lines in English and Italian and by the printing with each sonnet of the first line in Italian. May English readers enjoy Mr. Auslander's very worthy rendering!

JOHN VAN HORNE

University of Illinois

TARR, F. COURTNEY, AND CENTENO, AUGUSTO, *A Graded Spanish Review Grammar with Composition*. New York: F. S. Crofts & Company, 1933. xii + 321 pp.

Inspired by a suspicion that the preface is the part of the book which an author usually writes last, the present reviewer has first

studied the text of the work under consideration and then read the authors' prefatory exposition only to find himself embarrassed to have to comment on an accomplishment which fully achieves the ends and aims set forth therein. In fact, for the purpose of this review it might suffice to declare that Professors Tarr and Centeno have produced a book of extensive scope, enlightening information, effective organization, lucid presentation, abundant illustration, practically varied drill, and flexible application. If *A Graded Spanish Review Grammar* should ever fail to impart to the student an intelligent knowledge of the broad and specific phenomena of Spanish syntax, verbs, idiom, diction, and style, one would be constrained to admit that not all wisdom and learning are indiscriminately transmissible.

The title is the book's most serious shortcoming; it promises far less than is contained between the covers. It does not reveal, for instance, the point of view from which it was seemingly written, namely, that grammar and language are a human experience rooted in history and growing in the present. One statement in the authors' *Preface* is extremely significant in this connection. "Throughout the book the Spanish language is contrasted to the English and an attempt has been made to bring out some of the underlying psychological factors and peculiarly national modes of thought. Such historical information as may be of interest has been placed in the footnotes" (p. vii). It is this procedure which distinguishes the work of Professors Tarr and Centeno within its category; they are apparently of the opinion, whose soundness few can question, that what the student needs after a thorough course in elementary grammar is not a review of the same material in slightly different patterns, but an analytical insight into the ground which he has already covered and an introduction to the finer and more subtle aspects of Spanish style and syntax—to the unique personality of the language, so to speak. Moreover, it is obvious that the authors did not follow subjectively arbitrary standards in selecting their expository material; rather did they gather ample evidence of Spanish usage, written and oral, literary and popular. So that, should their book fail somewhere to realize its primary purpose, it might conceivably be effective in another direction through the training which it affords for intelligent and appreciative reading of current and idiomatic Spanish, for many syntactical and stylistic phenomena which in annotated reading texts are "simplified" for the student by means of "suggested translations" are in this text analyzed and made intelligible in the light of historical evolution, logic and reason.

In the opinion of this reviewer the distribution of emphasis is one of the most noteworthy features of the present volume. Few experienced teachers could object, for example, to the fact that of the nineteen principal chapters eight are devoted almost exclusively to the various aspects of the verb. Particularly commendable is the

treatment of *ser* and *estar*; the authors analyze and clarify with notable success this very troublesome chapter of Spanish grammar. The same should be said of the discussion of the imperfect and preterit tenses as well as the presentation of the relative pronouns, in the latter case an item conspicuously neglected in most textbooks. And lastly, Professors Tarr and Centeno deserve specific praise for the admirable manner in which they have combined verb and idiom drill in one series of exercises, accomplishing in addition to the two inherent aims the one of giving the student a feeling for the texture and patterns of colloquial Spanish.

It may be an inopportune feature from the standpoint of contemporary patriotic duty, but the Tarr-Centeno book, by virtue of the very flexible arrangement of its material, can be made to do for more than one course. The division of each lesson into three independent parts makes it possible either to take up portions of all the units concurrently or to cover only one unit at a time for the entire book. This added to the twenty *temas*, dealing with some important phases of Spanish life and culture and expressed in vivid and living Castilian, affords ample material for grammar and composition work at various levels of preparation.

Methodologists will unquestionably discover vulnerable spots in *A Graded Spanish Review Grammar*; it is a work singularly free from pedagogical agencies and instrumentalities calculated to carry the student comfortably along the royal road to learning. It is distinctly an "old-fashioned" book, but that is perhaps its conspicuous virtue; it minimizes formalistic devices and emphasizes content calling for concentrated observation, analysis, understanding, practice, and appreciation.

Professors Tarr and Centeno undoubtedly share the guilt which it is expected every genuine scholar should feel after he has been tempted to write "a mere textbook." May they find solace and comfort in the thought that in the opinion of the present reviewer at least their book might justly be included among other modest contributions to Spanish style and syntax intended for a more respectable resting place than a student's bookshelf!

H. CHONON BERKOWITZ

University of Wisconsin

G. F.-H. BERKELEY. *Italy in the making, 1815 to 1846*. Cambridge University Press, 1932. xxx+292 pp.

The hand of a master, thoroughly versed in the period that he covers, appears in this book. While promising to continue into the exciting events of 1846-1848, in this volume the author relentlessly confines himself to the preparatory years. He stops just when the fireworks are to be set off, producing thereby an artistic effect

of suspense. The reviewer does not of course imply that the historian deliberately planned such suspense.

The author co-ordinates logically his principal motifs—revolution, reaction, moderation, Piedmont, the Papal States. Mazzini, Metternich, Charles Albert, D'Azeglio, Balbo, Gioberti follow one another vividly, like persons whom through long study the narrator knows so well that he can probe the recesses of their minds. Toward the end comes a delightful picture of Pius IX to hold the center of the stage for a moment as the curtain falls.

The teacher of Italian literature notes with delight that the historian, without overlooking in any sense his scientific documentary sources, has succeeded in fusing therewith in an organic whole the great spiritual content of the *Primato*, the *Speranze d'Italia* and the *Ultimi casi di Romagna*. We are tempted to ask, why not also the *Canti*, *I promessi sposi* and other works? No, the historian is probably right here; such works are less easily harmonized with a narration of facts. Moreover, the book is deliberately and rightly brief. From the bottom of his heart the reviewer congratulates Mr. Berkeley, in whose work England's great tradition of interpretation of Italy is worthily continued.

JOHN VAN HORNE

University of Illinois

REGIS MICHAUD. *Vingtième Siècle. An Anthology*. New York: Harpers. xxxii 505 pp. (445 pp. text) \$2.

'Tis a mad world, my masters! Such must be the impression of old-fashioned readers when they first open M. Michaud's anthology. And they may regret that Maurois' clever take-off, *La Naissance d'un Maître*, was not quoted as an epigraph. But M. Michaud takes his dadaists seriously. The book contains short selections from 29 authors representing those "who showed the greatest originality of thought and style" and the advance-guard. For each there is a biographical and critical foreword. The general introduction surveys the literary movements of the last three decades and the supplement completes this with appreciations of Baudelaire, who is not quoted in the text, remarks on style, etc., and on the ideals of the various schools. Notes, often absolutely necessary for an inkling of the meaning of the selections, and bibliographies complete the volume. Isidore Ducasse, Mallarmé, and Rimbaud are included because of their undisputed influence on our time.

The book is intended for advanced students. It would be a mistake to put it into the hands of others, first because much of the matter has probably an ephemeral value only, and second, because, without a sound knowledge of the older writers, the unwary will accept too credulously the claims of the new to originality. The editor remarks in his preface: "*Nil novi sub sole*," and mentions ro-

manticism, Parnasse, and symbolism as acknowledged forerunners. Perhaps there are others. For instance, Balzac certainly felt "la synthèse du monde" and he gave a vastly more intelligible interpretation of it than did Jules Romain, founder of *unanimité*. Again, Balzac was distinctly aware of at least one use of the *monologue intérieur*, as he proved in the dialogue between the abbé Troubert and Mme de Listomère (*Le Curé de Tours*). And are there not striking examples of the sub-conscious in Rousseau's *Confessions*? Certain statements in the editor's introduction may lead to misunderstanding. Take this: "Academic writers had sacrificed everything to the content. The *jeunes* wanted to give all to form and technique." If Anatole France, an academician, survives, it will certainly be thanks to his form, that is, to his style. We may well question whether any author can live without form, and the immortals harmonize content and form.

Whatever posterity may think of the authors in this collection, the editor is to be congratulated for his conscientious work in a difficult field. He has helped us to an understanding of what is going on around us, and nowhere is a guide more necessary than in chaos. And let us not overlook the words of Apollinaire:

Soyez indulgents quand vous nous comparez
 A ceux qui furent la perfection de l'ordre
 Nous qui quêtions partout l'aventure
 Nous ne sommes pas vos ennemis
 Nous voulons nous donner de vastes et d'étranges domaines
 Où le mystère en fleurs s'offre à qui veut le cueillir.

BENJ. M. WOODBRIDGE.

Reed College

Ces dames aux chapeaux verts, comédie par Albert Acremant [from novel by Mme Acremant] avec préface, introduction, notes, exercices et vocabulaire par Robert Fouré et Hélène Fouré, Officiers d'Académie, Diplômés de l'Université de Paris, Professeurs à Ohio State University. xii+102 pp. (text)+25 pp. (exercices with much stress on pronunciation)+70 pp. (vocabulary Fr.-Eng. with Int. Phonetic characters after each word). Ginn and Co. 1933.

Characters: four ladies, unmarried, aged 35, 40, 45, 48; their niece, Arlette, 18, daughter of their rather scapegrace brother; Jacques, her admirer, 29, son of M. de Fleurville, landlord of *ces dames*, who refuses to fix the leaking drain; M. Hyacinthe, 45, now a settled school teacher, one time suitor of Marie, the youngest of *ces dames*; three minor characters.

Plot: Arlette, after her father's death, comes to live with the foursome, soon understands their psychology, rummages in the attic and discovers Marie's diary thereby learning of her blighted

love affair, determines to resuscitate it, visits M. Hyacinthe in his schoolroom, there meets Jacques, her former acquaintance and former pupil of M. Hyacinthe. She succeeds with everything. M. Hyacinthe, after receiving the promise of Marie's hand, reciprocates by asking the hand of Arlette for Jacques; this is granted and the father, like a generous landlord, says "*je déposerai dans la corbeille de mariage, en premier cadeau, la réparation de la gouttière.*"

Purpose: p. iii "*Ces Dames aux chapeaux verts . . . picture of the traditions, manners, spirit, character, and wit of a French family.*" The family is hardly typical, however. The oldest of *ces dames* says, (p. 77) "*L'existence des vieilles demoiselles . . . n'est pas humaine. . . . On raille nos défauts. On critique notre caractère. On nous reproche nos égoïsmes, nos scrupules, nos préjugés.*"

Footnotes in French refer to passages in the text marked with numerals and printed in bold-face type. Occasionally the notes seem more complicated than the text, e.g., p. 6, *Inutile de faire un aussi fort éclairage*=*Il est inutile d'avoir tant de lumière*; p. 8, *Ça devait finir mal*=*Il était certain que la fin de tout cela serait mauvaise*; p. 70, *taffetas gommé*=*étouffe mince qui sert à recouvrir une coupure ou égratignure* [in vocabulary=*court plaster* which seems quite adequate]; p. 81, *Soite que j'ai été*=*J'ai été soite*. On the other hand some comment might be made on p. 5, l. 1, *n'ayez crainte*; p. 21, l. 23 *jeunes gens* and l. 27, *un jeune homme*; p. 77, l. 13 *vieilles demoiselles* and l. 24, *vieilles filles*. I rather question p. 33, l. 4 *C'est que*=*c'est parce que* and p. 45, l.25 *qu'elle m'écrive*=*dites-lui qu'elle m'écrive*.

The vocabulary seems well done. I should suggest other definitions for *jeunes gens*=*youth*; *mettre*=*to put*, *put on* (p. 34, l. 29 "*une robe . . . que je puisse . . . mettre deux ans*") ; *passer*=*to pass*, *spend* (p. 99, l. 18 "*passe la tête*") ; *pion*=*pawn* (p. 92, l. 3, "*jouer aux dames*").

The play seems well edited and the story is mildly interesting.

MERLE I. PROTZMAN

George Washington University

LUDOVIC HALÉVY. *L'Abbé Constantin*. Edited with introduction, notes, exercises, and vocabulary by M. L. Carrel. Henry Holt and Co., 1933. Price, 80 cents.

This new edition of a well-known school text evidently finds its justification in a different arrangement of notes and exercises which are grouped together under the "page-unit" method so that, corresponding to each single page of the text, is found an appropriate group of notes and exercises. The editor expresses the belief that the notes will be used more easily if the material is thus grouped separately for each page. The notes are entitled *Explications de texte* and are followed by questions, completion exercises, or word-

study suggestions—all in French. At the end of each chapter, a completion exercise is provided to test the student's knowledge of facts. The text contains a one-page biography of Halévy. The book has six full-page illustrations. The reviewer questions the value of these pictures since they are not especially artistic and seem to emphasize the old-fashioned nature of the story. These illustrations are reproduced from the earlier Holt edition of *L'Abbé Constantin* by Super and Brooks.

The text is remarkably free from misprints. Three occur on p. 19: *es* (l. 3), *écoiers* (l. 10), and *Longueva* (l. 19). *Embrasser* is spelled *embracer* in the vocabulary. *Près* should be written *prés* on p. 84, l. 23. The vocabulary seems adequate. The following omissions have been noted: *mobilisés* (p. 23, l. 10); *couchette* (p. 65, l. 24) *omnibus* (p. 69, l. 31); *directeur* (p. 127, l. 1). Explanation in vocabulary or notes is needed for *de grands vœux* (p. 70, l. 23) and *tout de bon* (p. 116, l. 16). A few words are defined in the vocabulary by terms which seem scarcely suited to the meaning in the text: *engagée* (p. 20, l. 6); *se précipiter* (p. 43, l. 14). *Grand air* (p. 18, l. 3) is correctly explained in the notes, but the vocabulary is misleading. Some expressions such as *et celui-ci de répondre* (p. 7, l. 4) and *lui ne l'aimait pas* (p. 10, l. 3) might well be explained in the notes.

In spite of these minor defects the book is, on the whole, well edited, especially for high school students, and deserves consideration by instructors who wish to use *L'Abbé Constantin* as a text.

MINNIE M. MILLER

Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia

LAURENCE A. WILKINS AND HYMEN ALPERN. *Nuevos Ejercicios*. New York: Globe Book Company. 1933.

This book is, as the title suggests, a drill manual, a series of exercises designed to give practice in the application of grammar rules. It is not a grammar and no grammar rules have been included in the text, the authors having been content to confine themselves to a series of drills of various types—multiple choice, completion, matching, transposition, substitution, etc. While the exercises in the average grammar may be deemed adequate, few can boast of any that can compare with these in practicability or in the stimulation of the interest of the student. The drills include "all parts of speech, all the more important grammatical and syntactical phenomena," and a series of two hundred common idioms. There are also drills for translation and aural practice and suggested subjects for composition work.

The "Informational Syllabus," included in the appendix, contains information on Spanish geography, history and customs that should awaken an interest in things Hispanic. One gathers from the preface that *Nuevos Ejercicios* is designed primarily for high

school work, but its utility for first year college courses is undeniable. The book is bound in attractive buckram and the print is large and clear. Attention should be called to the error on page 148 as to the date of the Invincible Armada.

CAMERON C. GULLETTE

University of Illinois

ARTURO TORRES. *Essentials of Spanish*. Two volume edition by Nina Lee Weisinger and Roberta King. Book I, 331 pp.: Book II, 392 pp. Doubleday, Doran and Co.

This is a revision of the earlier Torres book, now brought out in two volumes for use in high schools, each book serving as both grammar and reader.

In addition to the usual introductory material on pronunciation Book I is provided with phonetic transcription of some of the vocabulary words and with exercises on pronunciation accompanying each lesson. These exercises contain not only lists of words which illustrate the particular sound upon which it is desired to drill, but also thought-provoking questions relative to the underlying rules.

Lessons consist of: first, a *lectura*, then grammar presentation and vocabulary, followed by varied exercises, and close with the pronunciation drill (mentioned above), with an occasional tail piece of a proverb, a puzzle, a list of useful class room phrases, or a bit of verse added as a stimulant to interest.

Attention should be called to the fact that the book is rich in these lists of classroom phrases, grammar terms, formulas of courtesy, etc., which are found either scattered throughout in short groups, at the close of lessons (in quantities admirably adapted to memorization), or in the several pages on such material which are included in the Introduction.

Repasos or review lessons are inserted after every few lessons. They are distinctive in that, in addition to the varied drills on points of grammar, they contain comprehensive reviews of vocabulary.

The exercises or drills in both the regular and the review lessons contain ample completion, matching, true-false and mutation material, with a relatively small proportion of space given to English to Spanish sentences.

At the close of the grammar lessons there is an appendix of informational readings, in *English*, on Spanish geography, history and customs.

Book II opens with a brief summary of the grammar presented in Book I and then proceeds with the remainder of the material, giving an unusually interesting presentation, owing to the fact that so much of the grammar was reserved until this second book that the students will find the material quite new. What has been

said of the makeup of the lessons of Book I will apply quite as well to Book II, although the individual lessons are no longer accompanied by pronunciation drills and the phonetic transcriptions do not appear with vocabulary words. *Repasos* are found in this book, too, as is the appendix of English readings of informational material.

The most outstanding feature of Book II is doubtless the subject matter of the *lecturas* and the English readings—which is of a much more solid character than that of Book I. In this second book the *lecturas* offer much informational material on Spanish and South American history, life and geography, with the English readings devoted entirely to South American subjects. Contrasting with this material is the story *Fortuna* which appears in the latter part of the text.

The books are attractively gotten up and illustrated with numerous small but clever drawings. Their physical makeup, the quantity of short, interesting proverbs, jokes, verses and groups of useful phrases, the worth-while character of the reading material (especially in the *lecturas* of Book II), the informational material in English, and the slowness of the grammar presentation coupled with the excellent drills, all combine to produce a worth-while, usable series which should be interesting to teach. The editors state that the reading provided is offered as a minimum—which opens the way for the introduction of supplementary readers and notifies the user of the texts that the amount of reading offered is perhaps not so great as many will wish to include. This fact does not in the least detract from the excellent qualities of the series, which should be very useful in the high school teaching of Spanish.

CAMERON C. GULLETTE

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MCGILL AND DE LAUTREPPE. *Pas à Pas*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1932. Ill. Price \$.60. Pp. iii+161.

To one who has been teaching French for the last ten years the title *Pas à Pas* recalls immediately a good beginners book. It is a collection of twenty-five short stories based on well-known fairy tales such as *La belle au bois dormant*, *le Petit Poucet*; familiar French fables, *La laitière et le Pot au lait*, *Les deux voyageurs*; lives of historical heroes, *Bayard, le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*, *La Tour d'Auvergne*; and famous characters in literature, *Mon frère Jacques* of Daudet. These stories have been so simplified and abridged that each one can be assigned for one day's work but the author has been very fortunate in retaining the interesting details. Once a lesson is finished the student has learned the main facts and has a good summary of the story. Whether he ever reads the original or not, he can always talk intelligently about it. This ma-

terial, so interesting to a boy or girl of 14 or 15, is written in very simple language so as to make excessive thumbing of the vocabulary unnecessary.

To the first edition of *Pas à Pas* which appeared in 1922, Walderman de Lautreppe has added, in 1932, two complete sets of exercises and questions. These are a distinct help to the busy teacher. They simplify for him the preparations of the lesson as now he does not have to plan it himself. The drills comprise all sorts of blank-filling exercises (so easy to correct) on definite articles, partitives, common prepositions, possessives and demonstratives, adjectives, also adverbs, opposites, feminines of adjectives and nouns, derivatives and questions based on each text. At the end there is another set of comprehension exercises consisting of English questions and true and false statements on each text. Since the English questions have already been asked in French in the first set, they might well be omitted. The true and false statements could be added to the first series. Hence the division seems rather unnecessary.

This new edition of *Pas à Pas* makes a very good reader to be used during the second term of the first year in conjunction with a direct method grammar. It is short, simple, adds interest when the grammar is getting dull and does not take up too much time.

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